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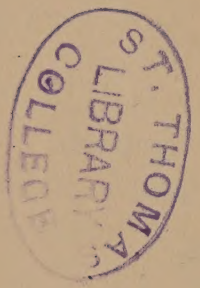

SPECIAL METHOD IN HISTORY

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SPECIAL METHOD IN HISTORY

A COMPLETE OUTLINE OF A COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY FOR THE GRADES BELOW THE HIGH SCHOOL

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BY

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PREFACE

THIS book contains a plan of a complete course of study in history for the grades below the high school. It is an attempt not only to outline this historical course, but also to point out with definiteness the materials which may appear in each year's study, to estimate the value and fitness of the matter selected for each grade, and to discuss and illustrate at some length the method of handling these materials.

A separate chapter is given to a somewhat full discussion of each of the four grades of work.

The chapter containing the course of study names the topics for each year's work, and also points out at length the correlations with geography, reading, and literature, while a separate chapter discusses the value of these correlations.

The final chapter contains for each year a carefully selected and arranged series of books for children and teachers. It is hoped that this list will enable the teacher to carry out practically the course of study which precedes it.

In order to carry out the plan of oral instruction advocated for fourth and fifth grades, the author has prepared three small volumes of Pioneer History Stories of America, which are designed to furnish

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the suitable story-material which may be easily arranged for any part of the country, according to local geographical position and needs.

This book is one of a series of Special Methods in the common school studies. The others of the series are The Special Methods in the Reading of Complete English Classics, in Primary Reading and Oral Work with Stories, in Geography and in Natural Science.

The entire series of Special Methods is designed to work out and apply in the detail of each study the broad principles discussed in the General Method and in the Method of the Recitation.

A complete Course of Study for the Grades of the Common School is in preparation, which will bring together in two volumes the comprehensive plans, outlines of courses, and full references for all the studies of the common school.

This course of Study in History, while it establishes American history as the central body of historical material, also draws extensively from the history of England and of Europe, and, in connection with reading and literature, looks for a still wider extension of the child's horizon of thought.

CHARLES A. McMURRY.

PALATKA, FLORIDA,
March 24, 1903.

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SPECIAL METHOD IN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE AIM OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION

WITHOUT dropping a plummet to the depths of our subject at the moment of embarking, we may at least say that it is good for children to gain an intelligent interest in the families and persons of their neighborhood, in the health and comfort of the people of their own town, later in the personal history of well-known characters, such as Longfellow, Lincoln, John Winthrop, Charles Dickens, and John Quincy Adams, and in larger matters of public concern.

This intelligent interest is awakened first of all by a lifelike picture of the personal fortunes of men like Daniel Boone, or David, or Alfred the Great. Such biographies open a highway into the struggles and dangers of communities and young nations. The life stories also of inventors and benefactors like Stephenson, Fulton, and Peter Cooper, of Florence Nightingale, John Eliot, and William Penn, kindle social sympathies of lasting worth. Children are already acquainted with persons, and have strong personal interests and affections, or, it may be, the opposite.

With this early experience as a basis, they can more quickly interpret the lives of individuals. They tacitly compare themselves with such persons, and are stimulated to like feelings and actions. The lives of the world's chiefs are often called the very substance of history, as in Carlyle's "Heroes and Hero-worship," and in Emerson's "Representative Men." They serve as examples and ideals to arouse enthusiasms, and have an unestimated power in giving the initial impulses toward the formation of character in children.

Such biographies disclose to a child the broad arena of possible action, and at the same time give an impulse to the full stretch of his own best powers. A suitable variety of select biographies must act in a directly personal way upon each child. The secret sources of strength in each boy or girl will thus be touched and made conscious. So far as biographies are typical or representative, they give insight into the common interests of society and are the natural introduction to public concerns.

This intelligent interest may be awakened in the common life of the people, as in old-fashioned customs and modes of dress, in the style and peculiarity of their houses, furniture, and domestic arrangements, in their hardships and sufferings caused by war, pestilence, or drouth, in their toils in field, forest, or shop, on lakes and rivers, in their homes and family life, in their churches and religious ideas, in their games and

amusements, in their schools, jury trials, and prisons, in their social, educational, and political gatherings, and in the peculiarities of different nationalities and races in our own and other countries.

Two of our ablest writers in recent times, Green, in England, and McMaster, in the United States, have given us instructive descriptions of the every-day life and work of the plain people, thus unveiling, as it were, the giant sinews and energies of *demos*, the folk, as compared with the puny arm of princes. The teacher of history, like the politician and historian, has been brought to a change of base. The world is no longer chiefly concerned in the acts and privileges of rulers and kings, but in the mammoth social needs of the people. As individuals hasten or obstruct this democratic social betterment, they are important.

In this country, where "We, the people, do ordain and establish constitutions," it is fit that the social good of all should have the preëminence.

The will of the people, as expressed in their public and private labors, has played and is playing the chief part in the progress of our country. These powerful folk-tendencies are overwhelming. The westward movement of population into new regions, the settling up and shaping of new states, have been almost wholly due to the folk-energy. The children should be led to gain some appreciation of these race achievements and of their overwhelming importance.

It is not necessary to settle the controversy between Carlyle and his critics as to whether a few great men have carried the world on their shoulders. In our history men have been great leaders to the extent to which they have been pronounced exponents of the better popular will, — that is, have been true representatives of the desires and tendencies of the common people.

An intelligent interest should be awakened in tracing out the origin and development of ideas and institutions. Our history has been a history of strong and vigorous growth, not only in numbers and extent of territory, in commerce and industry, in products and resources, but also in religious and political ideas, in state and national constitutions, in educational systems, in plans of taxation and revenue, and in all the institutions of the most complex life. To trace the origin and growth of ideas and institutions is a most valuable and interesting study. For example, the idea of religious toleration was developed but slowly and gradually among the colonists, but led eventually to the most important results in giving freedom under the constitution, and the complete separation of church and state. It is of interest to trace the growth of our post-office system in colonial times, then under Franklin's management, and later under the federal government. It is by tracing these progressive steps in commerce, modes of travel, and political and social institutions that we get some true notion of the bear-

ing of these things in our present life. Our historians have always laid much stress upon the growth of political institutions, such as the gradual evolution of the representative system, first in the colonies and then under the articles of confederation and the constitution. In recent years much has been said of the teaching of civics and civil government in grammar schools and in high schools. So far as the grammar schools are concerned, the very names of civics and civil government seem to point to an abstract conception of government, to a fixed and formal set of documents and institutions. It would be better for the children in the common school to find these constitutions springing up during the history of the country as natural and necessary products of the labor and thought of the people. They should see that as the people grow and change, ideas and constitutions grow and change. That all these institutions have the vitality of the people's thoughts and need in them.

We shall get a better view of the aim and educative value of history by an inquiry into the question: How far can the children *relive* the past? can reproduce in themselves the helpful experience of men? In thought, feeling, and imagination, to what extent may a child live over again the scenes, the dangers, the struggles, the disasters, and the triumphs of previous generations? For example, the long labors and the final landing of Columbus in America, the life of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, the voyage of

Magellan, the struggles of the pioneers, the scenes in camps, in cabinets, in senates, or on the battle-field? If history can be taught in such a way that a child may take up into himself the experience of the race, that all he has read and studied shall become a part of his real self, that the experiences of men in different countries may ripen into the wisdom of the youth approaching maturity, we shall see that history may be a powerful educator. But a child can live and feel, that is, experience, only those things which he can appreciate, both by intellect and by sympathy. If this part of the aim of history is made good, we must be extremely careful in selecting those parts of history appropriate to the capacity of childhood and youth.

It should be the aim of history to bring the past into manifest relation to the present, and to show how historical ideas and experiences are being constantly projected into the present, are, in fact, the controlling forces in our social and industrial life. The series of locomotive engines in one of our great expositions, showing the steady improvement of the engine by successive inventions, proves that our modern Mogul is a concentration of all the inventive wisdom of machinists for a hundred years and much more. Likewise, every important institution of our present society is the evolved product of a whole series of historical influences. Such, for example, is a great insurance company, a university, a printing establish-

ment, the entire executive department of the government, a shoe factory, a department store, and a city school system. History should end with giving a child a much sharper understanding of the political and social world around him. In tracing the evolution of ideas and institutions from the beginning of American history to the present time, we get a strong momentum toward the right interpretation of present conditions. This may be asking too much of the school when we consider how complex, difficult, and, as yet, unsolved many of our political and social problems are; but it is still true that one leading purpose of history is to interpret and value the present, to estimate properly the ideas and forces which are now at work around us. If children have previously figured out the expense account of the country in achieving present results, if they may realize, as Lincoln said, that each drop of blood drawn by the lash is paid for by one drawn by the sword, they have gained a much better perspective from which to view our present problems. It may be said, however, that the solution of our present problems lies with men and not with children. Yet the swift evolution by which children pass from the schoolroom into the complex activities of life is a great admonition and encouragement to teachers.

It is often said that one aim of history is to teach patriotism. It might be better said that history should aim to clarify and purify the sentiment of

patriotism. The crude feeling of patriotism is very strong and demonstrative in this country, and it is a reality, not a boast nor a dream. It greatly needs to be purified. Children should be made more intelligent about our country and more sensitive to its true honor and dignity. This result is attainable by the schools because the lives, words, and deeds of the best patriotic Americans are easily within the reach of teachers and children. Disinterested American patriots, such as Franklin, Washington, Lincoln, Emerson, Bryant, Lowell, and many others of the same stamp, have given unmistakable evidence in their works and words that they fully appreciated that higher destiny toward which America seems to be moving. True patriotism, by common consent, does not consist in magnifying our own country at the expense of England, the North at the expense of the South, or America, right or wrong, at the expense of the world. To cultivate fair-mindedness and honesty, to see clearly both sides of an historical controversy, is, in this respect, the true standard of history study. Americans have enough to be proud of without belittling those who chance to be their opponents, and without extravagant boasting as to their own deserts. Among other things we can well afford to understand our own mistakes and weaknesses, and to accept with fair-mindedness and honesty some of the superior excellences and institutions of other countries, as of France, or England, or

Germany. A course of study in history must necessarily include much historical material from other countries, and many noble characters not American. We have no end of instructive lessons to learn from Europe. True liberality and the broad mental balance and charity which go with it are things of slow growth, but in the study of history it is the paramount obligation of the teacher to cultivate these dispositions both in himself and in the children.

Following a great trend of educational thought in recent years, we may say that it is the aim of history-instruction to socialize a child, that is, to make him more regardful of the interests of others, less stubborn and isolated in his individuality, that is, less selfish. Without arguing the point we may suggest the sources from which this spirit naturally springs. The study of biography is social in its effect because it takes the child out of himself and loses him in the life and experiences of another. The more biographies of the right sort a child studies appreciatively, the more his own life is expanded to encompass and identify itself with the lives of others. As a general thing those lives are most worth studying which are social in their disposition, close and strong and manifold in their social relations. Great men are usually representative men, that is, they embody within themselves the sentiments and needs of whole parties or classes or nations, in short, are almost purely social products. To understand them is to understand the

interests of the social classes which they represent. The social instinct in children is also deepened by a study of the political and religious ideas upon which the welfare of millions of people may depend. The fugitive slave law, for example, roused the indignation of people because it threatened the welfare of whole masses of people, both white and black. The recent coal strike in the anthracite regions has aroused the interest of the nation in the welfare of many thousands of people. Not merely that the coal strike has directly affected so many people, but it has raised the great question of justice, on a large scale, between man and man. The conflict between Charles I and the Long Parliament interests us deeply because it was a struggle for the rights of the Commons against the arbitrary tyranny of a single man. It was simply a social problem. Industrial or political questions which involve the needs and comforts of whole classes of people are the nurseries of social sentiment.

It has been often observed that history is a moral study. It deals with the subject-matter which illustrates moral ideas and obligations. It teaches morals concretely both in individuals and in communities or states. But moral ideas always express the higher social relations between man and man. History, therefore, is preëminently a social and moral study. Froude, in his essay on history, says: "And it is precisely in this debatable ground of low motives

and noble emotions; in the struggle, ever failing yet ever renewed, to carry truth and justice into the administration of human society; in the establishment of states and in the overthrow of tyrannies; in the rise and fall of creeds; in the world of ideas; in the character and deeds of the great actors in the drama of life, where good and evil fight out their everlasting battle, now ranged in opposite camps, now and more often in the heart, both of them of each living man, — that the true human interest of history resides." And again: "First, it is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong. Opinions alter, manners change, creeds rise and fall, but the moral law is written on the tablets of eternity. For every false word or unrighteous deed, for cruelty and oppression, for lust or vanity, the price has to be paid at last; not always by the chief offenders, but paid by some one. Justice and truth alone endure and live. Injustice and falsehood may be long-lived, but doomsday comes at last to them, in French revolutions and other terrible ways."

It is the business of the teacher to use every device by which these social ideas and relations may be intensified in the study of history. It is a matter both of intelligent insight and of sympathetic feeling. For this reason history should never be studied in a dry, matter-of-fact, formal way. The people of history should live before the thought of the child as vividly

as the hero of a tale. The imagination must reconstruct the pictures of the past vividly. The persons studied must be observed with heartfelt interest, otherwise the social instinct receives no social stimulus. Quoting Froude again: "The address of history is less to the understanding than to the higher emotions. We learn in it to sympathize with what is great and good; we learn to hate what is base. In the anomalies of fortune we feel the mystery of our mortal existence; and in the companionship of the illustrious natures who have shaped the fortunes of the world, we escape from the littlenesses which cling to the round of common life, and our minds are tuned in a higher and nobler key."

The teacher is not left without resources when asked to teach morals through history. The historical materials most suitable for children in the grades are prolific in striking examples of social conduct. If these illustrations of action are placed clearly before the children in their true colors, they will carry their own moral. They make their own appeal to the child's sympathy and moral judgment.

As yet but little systematic and well-planned effort has been made to accumulate and arrange these genuine sources of moral culture in living, concrete form. But the materials are now at hand for making out such a course, and this highest aim of history instruction may be realized beyond anything which has yet been attempted.

Manual training and constructive work along lines suggested by history have been brought into service. If a boy constructs a wigwam, dresses like an Indian, and makes bows and arrows to shoot with, he comes into closer sympathy with Indian life. If a child produces a miniature log-house and its surroundings, he gets closer to the reality of pioneer life. By reproducing houses and various simple products of industrial art, a child not only finds expression for his motor activities in manual effort, but he comes into a closer sympathy and understanding of the people whose fabrics and houses he attempts to reproduce. It may be said that this is only another way of repeating in the child the experience of the past, and of working it over into his physical and mental organism. Anything in the way of drawings made by the children, constructions, or efforts at weaving and industrial production, which give vent to a child's motor impulses, as touched into life by a good story, will produce a more pronounced and lasting effect. This is at least one important illustration of the increased vitality given to studies by the exercise of constructive activities.

To what extent the course of study in history should incorporate into itself the primitive industries, and give play in the shop to the manual and constructive activities which are involved in the growth of the typical industrial arts is still an open question.

Some educators are inclined to think that the entire course of study must be reorganized on this basis, that the development of the social instincts into clearness and force depends upon direct participation through school exercises in the essential modes of industrial life. To my mind this question involves the course of study in geography and natural science quite as much as that in history.

Manual training or constructive work seems destined to occupy a great place in the coming curriculum of the common school. There is a large demand for it in order to secure effective work in history, geography, and natural science, and even, perhaps, in arithmetic and literature. Its vitalizing power, however, I think, depends upon its being identified with those several studies as an essential ingredient, not upon its being made a study apart from the others.

The study of history produces a kind of mental discipline which is peculiar to historical materials as distinguished from the exact methods of natural science and especially of mathematics. Historical studies, properly conducted, lead to a thoughtful weighing of arguments, pro and con, a survey of both sides of a question so as to reach a reasonable conclusion. These conclusions are not exact mathematical deductions. They are rather inferences based upon the careful weighing of probabilities. Hinsdale, in discussing the educational value of history, says :

'As remarked above, historical knowledge is moral knowledge. Mathematical studies deal with certain data and their method is demonstration. They start with definitions and axioms that are intuitively perceived, and proceed by necessary inferences to inevitable conclusions. There is no gathering of facts, no balancing of opposite arguments, no halting or hesitation. There can be no looking at the other side, because there is no other side. Uncertainty is an impossible state of mind. Very different are the problems of practical life, springing out of the relations of human beings. Very different the transaction of human business. Here we accumulate data, weigh the force of opposing evidence, reconcile contradictory views, and at last reach probable conclusions. No merchant, manufacturer, or ship-owner can demonstrate that a given venture will be successful. Generals cannot certainly predict the issue of battles and campaigns; if they could, battles would not be fought or campaigns be waged. Politicians are not absolutely sure that canvasses and elections will turn out so and so. And so it is with the teacher, the preacher, and the moralist." In accordance with this idea the problems of historical instruction are the means by which a certain thoughtfulness and judicial-mindedness are cultivated. History, even with children, becomes a training of the judgment. For the practical purposes of life it is just as important for a child to acquire this careful habit of

reasoning upon probabilities and of reaching approximately correct results as that he should be trained in exact mathematical reasoning.

History should be so taught that it may contribute largely to the better understanding of many topics in literature, geography, and natural science. Without the background and general setting of history much of the best literature based upon history cannot be understood and appreciated. One needs to get a framework of Scottish history and geography in order to understand Scott's "Marmion," "Lady of the Lake," and "The Lay of the Last Minstrel." Many of Webster's great speeches can only be understood in the light of the whole previous history of the country, and this statement may be made also of many of the best poems, ballads, novels, orations, and essays in our English literature. History supplies, therefore, much of the concrete material and the broader survey of historical events which constitutes a basis for understanding some of the best literature of the world. This gives us really an organic or vital relation between these great studies.

In summing up the conclusions of this chapter in regard to the aim of history instruction we may say that it should be so taught that children may become thoroughly and intelligently interested in individuals and in the concerns of society. It is a still better formulation of this aim to say that children shall reproduce in themselves the experiences of the suitable

educative epochs in history. A still stronger emphasis is given to the chief aim of history by centring its lessons upon the effort to socialize and humanize the children by an intelligent and sympathetic treatment of the moral relations of men. History is thus preëminently a moral study and moral practice. To give a vivid and intense realization of social duties and obligations is the essence of the best history instruction.

A great moral-social aim has such kingly power that it draws into its tributary service other important aims which some have set in the chief place. Among these is a pure and liberal patriotism, intelligent and fair-minded. The mental powers are also exercised in a mode of reasoning peculiar to historical materials which calls for a well-balanced judgment in the weighing of arguments, and in estimating probabilities. This is a most useful form of reasoning, constantly needed in our everyday problems.

CHAPTER II

THE SELECTION OF HISTORICAL MATERIALS SUITABLE FOR THE COMMON SCHOOL GRADES

To select the best historical material which the world can furnish to children in the common school is not an easy task. It is necessary to keep in mind both the children's capacity to appropriate historical knowledge and the character of those historical materials which are needed to interpret modern life. We must also remember the chief aim to socialize and humanize the child by causing him to experience the best epochs of historical growth.

We may first draw the line of separation between history and several very closely related studies with which it is frequently confused. Some writers are accustomed to include the mythologies and folklore commonly taught in the primary grades as a part of history, but for our present purpose we wish to discriminate history from the myth and legend and to limit it chiefly to what is now understood as authentic history which will stand the tests of modern methods of verification.

We are also disposed to draw a sharp line between

history and literature, such literature, for example, as the Homeric poems, the old English ballads, the Arthurian legends, Virgil's "Æneid," the story of "Siegfried," "Marmion," and many other historical poems and classics. Historical novels, likewise, even the best of them, are not included in the term "history" as we are now using it in connection with the school course. All of these literary materials are wrought into the school course, partly in the oral story work of the primary grades, partly in the regular study of reading throughout all the grades, and partly in supplementary readings both at school and home. This line of demarcation between history and literature casts no discredit upon literature, mythology, and historical fiction. A full course of study in the best literature of America and of other countries should be provided in the common school curriculum, and is presupposed. This whole subject has been fully discussed in the "Special Method in Reading of English Classics," and in the "Special Method in Primary Reading and Oral Work in Stories," of this series.

History proper deals with materials which have historical veracity, which are based upon good authorities and may be accepted as true. The teacher of history is expected to assume the standpoint of the modern scientific historian, at least so far as the use of authentic material is concerned. Not that the teacher himself is a historian, but he should use

materials which good historians have pronounced trustworthy. It is not expected that the teacher himself will become a technical critic or that he will try to make such critics of the children. But there are certain credulous, one-sided historical books which he should avoid. Biographies giving undue praise and credit to historical characters should be avoided. Books which are ultra-patriotic in their approval of all things American are not healthful historical books. On the other hand, it is not expected that children shall be trained to a carping criticism of great men, or that they should exercise a premature wisdom in judging the leaders in history. What is needed is, rather, a solid respect for historical truth and a disposition to know the facts and to learn the lessons which history really teaches.

In laying out a course of study in American and other history we may get at a good result by the negative process of deciding what historical materials should be excluded from our school course. We will attempt, therefore, to fix a table of exclusions.

1. Anything like a full chronology, either of American or European history, is out of the question in the common school. This sort of systematic chronology has been in vogue in our schools to a considerable extent, but it is rapidly passing away. For children it is certainly necessary that only a few important dates be learned.

2. A brief systematic survey of the history of the

whole world, which has been strongly recommended by some teachers, seems to have very little real basis in the needs of children or of society. Such an outline, if at all appropriate, should be the result of historical study at the end of the course, rather than a preface to it. It is inevitably a dull piece of work and cannot be defended even upon the ground of pure discipline, the belief in which is fast giving way to a more rational conviction.

3. The genealogies of kings and royal houses, and the endless series of court intrigues which once constituted a good share of the text-books in history, are now recognized as worse than valueless to children. Some critics, like Herbert Spencer, have almost totally rejected the study of history in our common schools because it was made up of such trash.

4. Many large periods of European history can be esteemed of no particular value to children up to the age of fourteen. They should not be dragged over the whole long chain of events as a prelude to the study of later ages.

5. The study of wars and military campaigns should be cut as short as possible. There are, indeed, some honorable and some horrible lessons to be learned from the study of war, and the impression of its destructive and devastating character, its ruinous influence upon society, should be made as plain as possible. Thus far, curiously, in the history work of schools, war has been chiefly glorified and its

inhuman and distressing phases overlooked. If taught at all, the truth about wars ought to be told and its brutalities, as well as its heroisms, exposed. This can be done by an occasional detailed treatment of a military campaign or battle. In a Christian nation it is quite admissible to bring out the selfish and unrighteous causes which have led to war, and the plundered fields and towns, and the broken and mangled families which are the sure and incurable results of war.

6. The philosophy of history is not a thing to be taught in the common school, and this applies also to some of those generalizations which even our text-books commonly supply. It is, however, of little value to children to memorize these general inferences. They presuppose just such a knowledge of the facts as the children should be engaged in accumulating. Both teachers and text-books easily drop into this humdrum method of summing up historical events. The pupils get little out of it except a routine drill which dulls the sensibilities.

7. Recent and contemporary history is perhaps the most difficult of historical studies, and for this reason have little appropriateness to children. The history of a hundred years ago can be much more easily understood by children than the current events of to-day. It takes a very wise and experienced scholar and man of the world to judge correctly any of our present political and social controversies.

We may say, on the one hand, that it involves the whole purpose of the course in history to bring the child to a point where he can get an intelligent insight into the present life of the people, but on the other side it may be said with equal truth that it is no part of the business of children to solve our present problems. It is the province of the course of study in history to put children in possession of those facts of our historical growth which will bring them to the threshold of the present with an intelligent equipment for these modern problems. We may say, therefore, that the schools can spend very little time in discussing our present political and social problems.

In this table of exclusions we have named a number of things which are of little value in our historical course because they are not educative in the best sense. Not appropriate to the thought and activity of childhood.

As to positive demands, our course of study calls for the selection of a few leading biographies and larger topics of American and of European history. These great topics should be appropriate to children, and educative in the sense of our aim. They should be topics in which the impulsive life of the children can find free and adequate utterance. They should appeal strongly to their interest and understanding, and enhance social spirit and intelligence.

These requirements are fulfilled first of all by biography, but biographies are of many sorts, and

the great majority of them are not of special interest or value to children. Biographical stories of the true stamp have a wonderful attraction for boys and girls, and even for men and women. There is perhaps nothing more interesting and instructive than the strong and manly effort of individuals under the stress and strain of life's problems.

There are also certain epochs of history which have a marked attractiveness for young people. For example, the age of chivalry and knight-errantry, the age of maritime exploration, the war of Greek Independence against the Persians, and the American Revolution. As children grow older their interests change and centre upon more complex and difficult historical personages and events. It has been one of the chief aims of educators to find out the series of epochs in the world's history which are most interesting and instructive to children in their successive stages of growth. As yet there seems to be no general agreement upon this point, and therefore our courses of study are in a shifting and uncertain condition; but so much, at least, seems to be established, that a few important epochs well treated in a descriptive and even dramatic fulness, are far better than a systematic, chronological survey of the history of many nations.

There are also important topics which show a continuous development, working out step by step, through many years, an important result. For ex-

ample, the discovery, exploration, and settlement of America, or the origin, growth, and outcome of slavery. It is an interesting and worthy study to trace out one of these topics in its causal sequence of events. Even a single event, like the adoption of the Constitution, is the important culmination of a long and complex series of historical causes which it is one of the great lessons of history to trace out. In these different ways important topics should be selected and arranged in the course of study which will give a full and adequate exercise of the mental powers of the children, awaken their spontaneous interest to a vigorous action, and help them to appreciate the chief historical influences.

In projecting the course of history for American children, it will be acknowledged on all hands that American history should have a prominent place. Thus far, in our common schools, it has practically occupied nearly the whole time given to history. But English and European history have received some attention, and are getting more and more recognition as a part of our school course.

It is well, therefore, to inquire definitely into the scope and educative value of American history. It is not only our own, but it is extremely rich in educative elements.

1. It exhibits the movement of political, social, and industrial forces, through the chief stages, from the simplest crude arrangements of the early settle-

ments up to that vast system, with its great complexity of institutions, which we now call our national life. I think it would be impossible to find any other nation in which the chief stages of modern history are better illustrated, and in which there is less backward movement or halting progress. The growth of institutions has been steady, incessant, and rapid. To trace out this movement in our history is as good a preparation as can be made for the understanding of our present political and social affairs. Professor Turner says: —

"Loria, the Italian economist, has urged the study of colonial life as an aid in understanding the stages of European development, affirming that colonial settlement is for economic science what the mountain is for geology, bringing to light primitive stratifications. 'America,' he says, 'has the key to the historical enigma which Europe has sought for centuries in vain, and the land which has no history reveals luminously the course of universal history.' There is much truth in this. The United States lies like a huge page in the history of society. Line by line, as we read this continental page from west to east, we find the record of social evolution. It begins with the Indian and the hunter; it goes on to tell of the disintegration of savagery by the entrance of the trader, the pathfinder of civilization; we read the annals of the pastoral stage in ranch life; the exploitation of the soil by the raising of

unrotated crops of corn and wheat in sparsely settled farming communities; the intense culture of the denser farm settlement; and finally, the manufacturing organization with city and factory system. This page is familiar to the student of census statistics, but how little of it has been used by our historians. Particularly in eastern states this page is a palimpsest. What is now a manufacturing state was in an earlier decade an area of intense farming. Earlier yet it had been a wheat area, and still earlier the 'range' had attracted the cattle herder. Thus Wisconsin, now developing manufacture, is a state with varied agricultural interests. But earlier it was given over to almost exclusive grain-raising, like North Dakota at the present time."

2. At every stage in this progress our country has been fortunate in the character of its leading men. Looked at from the standpoint of the education of the young, what can be more fortunate than that we should have among those persons with whose life and deeds every boy and girl is to become well acquainted, such men as John Winthrop, William Penn, Columbus, Roger Williams, Franklin, Washington, Samuel Adams, Marion, Robert Lee, Champlain, La Salle, and many others who were persons of very unusual force and excellence of character. It can hardly be called boasting to say that no other country has, in its early history (that part which children most study), such a remarkable and superior

body of representative men. When the personal history of these people is once properly presented to our boys and girls, its social and moral influence upon the character of the youth of America must be incalculably great.

3. This history is complete, authentic, and reliable, so that the truth can be told without disparagement to its culture effect. From the very beginning of our history the main facts are well established. There is no dim twilight of myth and legend, such as is peculiar to the history of every European state. We know the essential truth about the men and women who settled the thirteen colonies; what hardships and dangers they met, and what sort of character they exhibited. All this is thoroughly interesting and instructive to children, even more so, perhaps, than the heroes and exploits of mythical antiquity.

4. The story of our earlier national history in colonial times is full of those simpler, ruder forms of industrial life which furnish suitable working problems for the children in manual construction. The tendency of children to reproduce the conditions and surroundings of those whose lives and adventures are thoroughly interesting is well known. The early pioneers in America were builders and workers, hunters and fighters, men who knew how to make and use the spade, the axe, the oar, and fishing tackle, the spindle and the loom. Their

first constructions were of the rudest and simplest character. Log-houses, breastworks, forts, and palisades were among their first necessities. They were compelled to build up everything from the simplest beginnings in a land where absolutely none of the conveniences and products of civilization were to be found. They not only built their own houses and made their own furniture and fireplaces, they also prepared their own clothing from furs and hides, or from coarse cloth which they had spun and woven. From the forests they cut down the trees, from which to construct homes and forts, boats and ships. They cleared the ground and raised their own crops. They went out in fishing smacks and soon became bold and hardy fishermen along the coast of New England, or equally bold and fearless Indian fighters, or emigrants into the region farther west. The clothing, tools, implements, and weapons which they employed, the axes, levers, wedges, guns, and cooking utensils, boats, and tackle, were such as boys love to bring together for their hunting and outing trips. The necessities of the home and of the family caused them not only to make clothing, but also to produce salt and sugar, to put up meats and fruits, to raise vegetables, poultry, and domestic animals, and to supply themselves thus with all the means of food, shelter, and clothing which their ingenuity could devise. With their own hands, little by little, they actually

produced all the material objects of a civilized society.

The Indian life furnishes additional construction for boys and girls. Manual employments, suggested and stimulated by interest in these history stories, are undoubtedly a strong means of converting history into personal experience, and of causing the boy to realize, in the fullest degree, the historical events in which he is absorbed.

For these and other reasons, we are disposed to grant an unusual importance to early American history, and to give it a large place in the school work. In fact it may well serve as the backbone of this part of the course of study in history. Such parts of European history as contribute to a better understanding of American history or deal with equally important or kindred epochs in the life of nations will be brought into proper relation to the similar subjects in this primary course in American history.

The Selected Parts of European History

In the vast array of important historical material furnished by the history of Europe, it is plain that only a few striking and prominent incidents can be incorporated into the graded school curriculum. First, because much of that history is beyond the comprehension of children, and second, because the time possible for historical instruction is very limited.

It would be a sad mistake to overload the children with a mass of memorized detail, or to distress them with a schematic outline of the whole.

There are certain epochs in European history, like the coming of the Angles and Saxons to England, the Norman Conquest, the Reformation, and the Puritan Revolution, that have a world-significance. They are like mountain peaks which tower aloft and show the trend of great mountain chains. There are also certain lofty characters, like Alfred the Great, Cæsar, Charlemagne, Luther, Alexander, Isabella, Cromwell, and Napoleon, who have taught the world such commanding lessons that every child should have a chance to grasp in a few points the significance of their lives. These great events and personages belong to the supreme thought and experience of the race, and children should carry with them from school a distinct remembrance of such characters. In making the selection of these few conspicuous topics we must always regard the age and capacity of the children, and the real educative or culture value of the material selected.

It is evident that biography must here also have the lead. A few individuals of striking and convincing personality must be selected. Hannibal in the Punic wars, Cæsar in his conquest of Gaul and England, John Hampden in the contest with Charles I, Bismarck in the Unification of Germany, sum up in their personalities the most important political ideas

and events. In intermediate grades the hero tales of Regulus, Alfred the Great, Richard I, Robert Bruce, and Leonidas may be employed.

Again, many of the topics in earlier American history have their other half in Europe, and the immediate events in Europe demand a clear presentation. The stories of Raleigh, of Penn, of Columbus, of Magellan, of La Salle, and of all the colonial settlements have their preliminary basis of action in Europe, and the preceding events in England or Spain or France need a clear statement. Even the lives of Franklin, of John Paul Jones, and of other Revolutionary leaders are largely European in their surroundings and influences.

There are also European topics which are but enlarged treatments of American topics. The English Revolution and the Commonwealth, the Reformation, and the Colonization of America as viewed from Europe are enlargements of the points of view which we gain from the study of similar and closely related events in America. As will be later seen, many American subjects can be far better understood in England or France after kindred events have been studied on a smaller scale in American history. This close causal connection between events on the two shores of the Atlantic needs to be clearly traced out in order to get a true understanding of the importance and meaning of each.

It seems clear that children, by the time they

leave the common school, should have at least gained not only a bird's-eye view of the large and far-reaching events in European history, but also considerable insight into a few striking characteristics of each of the leading nations, as of the Romans, the Germans, the Spaniards, the French, and the English. When did these nations stand out most prominently in the world's work? Are they still progressive or have they dropped behind in the world's march? A few of these conspicuous persons and peoples may be treated with sufficient detail to arouse a real interest and to produce intelligent insight into their character.

CHAPTER III

HISTORY STORIES USED IN FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADES

We assume that American history will furnish us the chief materials for our course of study in history.

In the three primary grades we plan for no regular historical instruction. The use of a few simple history stories in primary grades at Thanksgiving and Christmas time, and on national celebrations, may serve as a prelude to the steady and purposeful studies which begin in the fourth grade. In the third grade also it may be well to discuss the family and neighborhood traditions, and the stories of a few of the early settlers in the home district.

The regular course in American history may begin in the fourth grade with a number of choice pioneer history stories of the United States. In selecting and arranging these stories we are controlled by two considerations. First, that they be taken from the simple, primitive period of early discovery and settlement, and not from the complex surroundings of a more advanced stage of society. Second, that the best early stories of the home state should be studied first, and that the movement be

gradually outward toward the neighboring states and to the whole of North America and the world. For example, in the Mississippi Valley states the pioneer stories of that region should be the first history lessons for children, and later, the stories of the eastern and far western states. In New York state the stories of Hudson and Champlain would naturally come first, while in Virginia, Raleigh and Smith would have the preference. The order in which the stories are taken up will thus vary in different parts of the United States. Two chief reasons may be assigned for this. First, the character of pioneer exploration and discovery is essentially the same in all parts of the United States. It has everywhere the same simplicity and the same difficulties and dangers to meet. Second, the chronology of pioneer events has at first little importance for children. The great thing is to produce strong impressions by a complete, animated, realistic portraiture of a few leading characters and the events in which they figured.

In nearly all cases the more difficult stories of Columbus, Magellan, Cortés, and Drake may be handled to better advantage in the fifth grade. Two years (fourth and fifth) are thus given to the pioneer period of American history dealing with the life experiences of explorers and the very earliest settlers.

As indicated in the course of study, a number of English and European history stories should be handled in these same grades. They spring from

the earliest historical epochs, and have primitive surroundings which children may understand. They fit in well with the American stories.

It is our opinion that in teaching all these stories, both American and European, the geographical background should be kept clearly in mind. Wall-maps, globes, and blackboard sketches should be used in every story to make clear the simple geographical surroundings in which the action takes place. One reason why the stories of Columbus and Magellan are more difficult than those of Boone and Champlain is that the former requires a knowledge of the whole earth and of the maps then used, and of the vague ideas then prevalent on geography.

Our first American history belongs to the heroic age. It was the blossoming time for deeds of individual heroism. But it is practical and real. The old heroes of mythical times had to do with monsters and demigods, or with the huge forces of nature in uncouth personifications, as Polyphemus, Scylla, and Charybdis. The heroes of this new world had more real and tangible hardships. Mountains, forests, rivers, stormy oceans, wild beasts, and Indians, and other untold hardships and distresses of people far from their sources of supply. The early explorers and settlers of our land first discovered and opened up its stretches of forest, mountain, and desert; then struggled manfully against savage difficulties to gain possession of its soil, and finally

labored slowly and painfully to build houses, roads, villages, and all the later institutions of culture. It can hardly be said that the earliest of these history stories can be used to advantage before the fourth grade, but for children of this grade they are well adapted.

It is not uncommon to find history stories in use in the first and second grades, and some even of our kindergartners employ the story of Columbus and of Washington and of others with still younger children. They claim also that much interest is awakened by such stories. We believe that children of the first and second grades are not mature enough to grasp these historical narratives in their geographical setting. We wish to use the stories at that point where they will produce their full educative effect. Nor do we believe that a story should be repeated from year to year in successive grades. Let the story, with its full accompaniment of local and geographical environment, be told by the teacher and reproduced by the children at that time when they are able to understand it clearly and receive a strong and permanent impression. We have tested these pioneer histories from time to time upon children of the third and fourth grades, and have reached the conclusion that third grade pupils are not quite equal to a satisfactory grasp of them. An exception to this rule has been noted in the use of a few stories in connection with Thanksgiving and other holidays.

The following discussion will make plain the qualitative elements in these stories that fit them for use in the fourth and fifth grades rather than at other periods of the school course.

The pioneer stories constitute the first stages of an unbroken series of history studies, beginning in the fourth grade and extending beyond the limits of the common school. Taking up first the best early biographies of the home state, we advance to adjacent parts of the country, north, south, east, and west, until the main lines of pioneer life and its leading characters in the earlier history of the United States have been treated.

Children should begin history as soon as they take a strong and intelligent interest in its simpler phases. Till of late, American history was not taught below the grammar grades. But now there is a strong tendency to use biographical stories in intermediate grades. This, we believe, is a correct instinct. Some of the chief lessons of history can be better taught in the intermediate grades than anywhere else. The educative effect of heroic stories seems deeper at this point than at any other time of child life. There appears to be a peculiar fitness of early history stories to children's minds at the age of ten or eleven.

What portion of our history is best suited to beginners? We think that simple, thrilling biographies of early pioneer life are best calculated to awaken the interest of younger children. They are plain and

primitive, and withal so energetic and spirited that they correspond to a child's physical and mental moods. Their heroism brings out those marks of prowess and courage, which children so much admire. They are, in the main, free from the complexities and entanglements of great wars, and of later political and social institutions. The elements of personal character find for children a clear and full expression, and the simple experiences of pioneer struggle and danger make an indelible mark upon them.

In order to secure stories which are adapted to children of this age, certain limits in their selection must be observed. First, they should be biographical stories, to secure simplicity and interest, and they should exhibit the lives of men of high character and purpose, such as impress the mind with generous thoughts. Secondly, the conditions of society should be simple and primitive, easily surveyed and comprehended. This condition excludes stories from the period of the Revolution and of the Civil War, unless they lie apart from the main struggle, and have a distinct pioneer character of their own. Not that stories taken from the midst of the Revolution or of the Civil War are less interesting and valuable, but they should come later to illustrate the spirit and temper of those times. The whole situation of a story, its geography, and historical setting, should be made transparent to the minds of children, and it is impossible for them to understand the complex move-

ments of armies in a great national struggle, much less the state of government, legislation, and finance inseparably connected therewith.

In the main, therefore, these stories must be selected from the narrow field of exploration and first settlement, before society had assumed complex forms, while commerce, manner of living, and government were still in their simplest beginnings. In any given part of the country, as in Massachusetts or California, the period of exploration and pioneer life was brief, but in the history of the United States, and of North America as a whole, it has lasted from the time of Columbus down almost to the present. In all its stages it has been a period of hardship and danger, calling out the most adventurous spirits and putting men of large physical and moral calibre under the necessity of exhibiting, in bold relief, their individual traits. Such men were La Salle, Boone, Penn, Clark, and Lincoln.

No other country has had such a pioneer history, such a race of men as the early Friends, the Virginians, the Puritans, the French, the Scotch-Irish, pushing westward to subdue and civilize a continent. The early history of England, Germany, or Italy is hid in myth or savage warfare. The Spanish explorers and conquerors of the New World teach us mostly lessons of cruelty, rapine, and inordinate love of gold. They serve as warning rather than as example. But the best nations of Europe were sifted

by persecution in order to find seed fit for the planting of those colonies, from which the United States derive their traditions. There is scarcely one of our states whose early history is not connected with the stirring deeds of one or more of these noted pioneers. No matter in what part of the country a child may be born and reared, he may meet the best spirit of our history in the early biographies of his own state.

Fortunate is that land whose early history is so full of profitable lessons, for there is no part of its annals that is destined to have such a telling influence upon its growing children. If the Romans, by studying their ancestral and traditional history, could train up such men as Cincinnatus, Regulus, and the Scipios, how much more valuable to our children are the strong and sinewy examples of Washington, Robertson, Champlain, and Frémont. For moral-educative purposes, there is no history so valuable as the biographies of our sturdy pioneers.

We believe that this pioneer epoch is the delightful gateway through which the children of our common schools are to find entrance to the fields of American history. These stories not only interest, instruct, and strengthen the moral fibre of children, but they are an excellent vantage-ground from which to advance into history, geography, and natural science.

As representative men, the pioneers settled some important disputes and laid the groundwork for later growth. They gave unmistakable proof of

the quality and the strength of the materials that went into the first framework of our western states. There is scarcely a better way to begin history than with the simple rudiments from which our later social and political fabric has grown, especially when spirited, heroic biography is the medium through which these elements are brought home to the hearts and sympathies of children.

In departing so widely from usage as to make instruction in historical topics a regular part of the school work from the fourth grade on, we assume the value of historical studies as discussed in Chapter I on "The Aim of History Instruction," and in Chapter II of "General Method." But we now feel called upon to justify still further and to emphasize by repetition this choice of materials from our own history for fourth and fifth grades.

In the first case, does this part of our history furnish materials that are adapted to the understanding and interest of children of this grade? In accordance with our previous discussion, heroic biography occupies the favored place in the hearts of children of this age. It is not the lives of orators, scientists, or even of statesmen, but of simple heroes, of men who have shown power and skill and goodness in an age when men battled single-handed or in small numbers against surrounding dangers.

So far as the schools are concerned, the fact has been too much overlooked that we have in our own

history an heroic epoch of surprising interest. A collection of the best pioneer biographies of our country, as shown above, is rich in stirring events, in deeds of fortitude and nobility which are destined to thrill the children with their high worth. Many of the best episodes of our history are as yet entirely unknown to our children; for example, the watchfulness and resource of Robertson during the Indian troubles about Nashville, and the boldness and energy of George Rogers Clark at Kaskaskia and Vincennes. These stories fulfil all the requirements of an exacting criticism even when put to the test of class-room work with children. These stirring, true descriptions of strong men and women, of difficult enterprises, are able to awaken the deep and permanent interest of children. For they have the ring of true metal in them that will pass current with all men in all ages. Our history, which is so rich in inspiring educative materials, has consisted too much, heretofore, in the study of skeleton outlines, in a memorizing of important events and of chronological tables. This has often tended to dull the interest in history or even to create a distaste for it. There is no reason why children in their earlier years should not come in contact, not with a barren statement of important facts, but with the personal deeds of men of energy and virtue. They see these men in action and are strongly stimulated by their spirit. The pioneer stories approach our

history from its most attractive side, presenting imposing pictures. They not only interest for the time being, but create an inclination toward the study of our leading men and of important events in the formative period of our history.

History stories have been introduced into our schools in recent years, but they are often too brief and didactic. A good story should claim a child's interest from its own inherent merit. By beginning early with truthful and appropriate biographies, we touch the heart of the child. In the regular teaching of history the tendency has been overwhelming toward a condensed and abstract statement of the great events of our national life. There has been much faith in the power of the mind to assimilate the generalizations boiled down into our brief compendiums of history. Even the children's histories, in biographical form, have been more anxious to load up with important facts than to tell a good story. We have much to learn in teaching history to children. It is no more true here than in natural science that the mind can dispense with concrete, interesting facts, the details from which general statements may be later inferred. By taking history in its simple but strong characters we shall gather the best materials and insure a strong interest. Andrew D. White, speaking of the teaching of history at Cornell University, says: "In general modern history and in

American history, while pains is taken to present the framework and connections historically, the filling-in is largely biographical. It is believed that history is thus more surely made living and real, that the development of principles and events is more firmly planted into the thinking of students, and that the ethical content of events may be grasped as it can be in no other way." Professor C. K. Adams says of the history course in the German gymnasia: "The course is almost exclusively biographical. Indeed, it is little more than a succession of stories told with the especial aim of making a deep impression upon the mind of the child concerning some of the most important of the great characters of history. Such a course, continuing for two years at the rate of two lessons a week, will be found to have given the pupil considerable knowledge of a vast number of valuable facts. And, best of all, the method by which this information has been acquired, so far from taxing the strength or wearying the attention of the scholar, has been to him a positive source of recreation and pleasure." If this biographical material is necessary in universities and secondary schools, how much more in intermediate and grammar grades.

In the second place, besides securing a strong and lasting interest, they are instructive in a double sense. The study of pioneer life in these concrete forms throws into dark relief the difficulties in a

primitive society of overcoming the obstacles in nature. In our present condition of society it is hard for us to realize what toil and effort have been expended in securing our common blessings, *e.g.* roads and bridges, tools and machines, houses and schools, and security from violence. Pioneer life reveals with great distinctness the intense difficulties which beset men in the earliest stages of that growth upward into our present civilization, when the most necessary things, as food, ammunition, medicine, and tools, and even salt were very hard to obtain. Many of the children, even of the common people, have such an easy abundance of all good things that they do not dream of the toil that these things have cost. With the growth of city population and luxury, with hundreds of boys and girls whose sole aim is amusement, it is well to return, in thought at least, and as far as possible in experience, to the simple, primitive hardships of our grandparents.

We desire also to secure an appreciative insight into the beginnings of social, economic, and political society. Children cannot understand this in its present complexity. Going back, however, to a simple social state, they may more easily see the chief elements. One of the greatest lessons of history is to discover how, out of simple early conditions, step by step, our present society and government have grown. There is no place where the

simple foundations upon which the Americans have built their institutions are seen with such clearness as in pioneer life. Professor Frederick J. Turner says: "American social development has been continually beginning over again on the frontier. This perennial rebirth, this fluidity of American life, this expansion westward with its new opportunities, its continuous touch with the simplicity of primitive society, furnish the forces dominating American character. The true point of view in the history of this nation is not the Atlantic coast, it is the great West." . . . "The frontier is the line of the most rapid and effective Americanization. The wilderness masters the colonist. It finds him a European in dress, industries, tools, modes of travel, and thought. It takes him from the railroad car and puts him in the birch canoe. It strips off the garments of civilization and arrays him in the hunting shirt and moccasin. It puts him in the log cabin of the Cherokee and Iroquois and runs an Indian palisade around him. Before long he has gone to planting Indian corn and ploughing with a sharp stick; he shouts the war-cry and takes the scalp in orthodox Indian fashion. In short, at the frontier the environment is at first too strong for the man. He must accept the conditions which it furnishes, or perish, and so he fits himself into the clearings and follows the Indian trails. Little by little he transforms the wilderness, but the outcome is not the old Europe, not simply the development of

Germanic germs, any more than the first phenomenon was a case of reversion to the Germanic mark. The fact is, that here is a new product that is American."

While this kind of pioneer history does not aim to give us a comprehensive view of the great events and movements in our national life, it does present, with great distinctness, a few important events that have had a formative influence upon all our later history, *e.g.* the efforts of the French to get possession of the St. Lawrence and of the Mississippi Valley; later, the conflict between the British and the Kentuckians for the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, the claims based upon the discoveries and explorations of the ocean pioneers, Columbus, Raleigh, Hudson, etc. Again, the important Indian tribes and confederacies are distinctively marked out, and their influence upon the trend of settlement. Some of the great characters of our annals, about which the memory loves to linger, men who stood for great and lasting achievements, are not only clearly pointed out, but illustrated with sufficient detail to give the colors of real life.

This leads us to our third point. Is the moral benefit of a proper teaching of these materials clear and positive? Simply to name a few of the men is almost sufficient answer. Columbus, Raleigh, La Salle, Penn, Marquette, Washington, Lincoln. The deeds and character which these names suggest

are what we desire to see emulated among the youth. As a means of moral education, the history of pioneer life is offered with great confidence. Moral impulses and dispositions are cultivated by giving the opening mind of the child a chance to admire and approve right actions in others. These biographies may serve, in short, as a series of object lessons in character and morals. In studying the lives of men we pass moral judgments, and pass them with fervor. The feelings and incentives aroused (especially if their daily practical bearings are kept in mind) pass over into moral convictions which influence our later actions. By a good selection of intrinsically valuable history stories, which create a strong personal interest, it is possible, under good instruction, to exert a direct moral influence in the formation of character in pupils.

Method of Treating History Stories in Fourth and Fifth Grades

Let it be assumed that we have found out what parts of American biography and history are best suited to instruct and stimulate children in these grades. We are to consider next in what manner they may get at and appreciate these stories. Would it be possible to leave them entirely to the home and extra-school occupations of the pupils? Are they likely, without school aid, to find the choicest epi-

sodes in our history; and, having found them, will they, unaided, get into the life and spirit of the men about whom they read? Or, again, supposing that these materials are furnished to children in supplementary readers, or even in school histories, to be learned and recited, can we count upon the right results?

First, there are very few books touching American biography or history which can be read easily by the children of the fourth and fifth grades. Their average reading capacity is considerably limited. They can understand many things presented to them orally which they would appropriate with difficulty in a printed form. Their power to think, reason, and understand is much greater than their readiness to grasp thought from the printed page. It is certainly desirable to induce children to read biography and history and to cultivate a taste for them as soon as they have the ability and inclination. But average children do not drink much from this fountain unless they have acquired some taste for its waters. The oral treatment of these stories, when the personal interest, energy, and skill of the teacher give the facts and scenes an almost real and tangible form — this oral treatment is the thing and the only thing to give a child the best start in historical study. There are doubtless a few bright children in every school who will browse for themselves if only the suitable books are put before them, but even these brighter minds are

apt to become slovenly readers if left without training in the power to realize and objectify the things read. We have in mind, however, not the exceptional few, but the great body of school children, and wish to determine what history can do to strengthen their characters and stir up vigorous thought.

A story becomes more graphic, interesting, realistic, in the hands of a good teacher. Not only are his descriptions more animated, picturesque, colloquial, adapting themselves to the faces, moods, and varied thoughts and suggestions of the pupils, but there can be a discussion of causes by pupils and teacher, a weighing of probabilities, a use of the blackboard for graphic drawing or diagram, a variety of homely illustrations, an appeal to the children's previous experience and reading such as is impossible in the mere memorizing of a book.

It is a favorite statement of writers and teachers that children must learn to use books. But unless books are used with intelligence and spirit no good result follows. Thousands of children in our schools use almost nothing but books, but after leaving school never read books nor care for them. The way to learn to use books is to learn to appreciate and enjoy the things found in books. The text-book has become to a large extent in this country a synonym for dulness. Many teachers have deceived themselves with the belief that even a dull, routine

use of text-books would somehow make children expert in the use of books. It may be said with more truth that only those persons have learned to use books who, after once learning to read, have broken loose from text-books and have allowed themselves a free range among the books of spirit and power.

No author, however talented or fertile in language, can supply what the interest, resource, and skill of a good teacher brings to the recitation. Any doubts on the part of the pupils can be solved, any misconceptions corrected, when the pupils take up the oral reproduction of the stories.

Where geography is involved, maps and sketches can be discussed in such a vivid and cause-revealing connection as to make the situations and the difficulties clear to the mind's eye. Where persons and scenes are presented, pictures may often greatly aid the verbal descriptions. Comparisons with home objects, in regard to size or resemblance in form, give greater precision, reality, and spirit to the thought products.

In history the oral presentation largely takes the place of the object in natural science studies. We desire to draw so near to historical persons, scenes, or occasions as to stand in their presence, to so exercise the imagination as to become the eye-witnesses of the facts. It is impossible to reproduce history except through the imagination.

When a person has read a play of Shakespeare under the suggestion and stimulus of a thoughtful admirer of the great poet, he will read all other plays with improved judgment and appreciation. When a child has learned how to interpret one history story through the aid of an enthusiastic teacher, he will read other history stories with better understanding. A course of oral lessons in a series of American history episodes and biographies is a preparation for a later study of history in a double sense. A keen and abiding interest is awakened in a few of our stanchest men. A deeper and more practical realization of the difficulties and hardships of these men and of their physical environment is secured. If we are to realize the significance of history and of men's conduct as there expressed, we must see and feel their dangers, trials, and physical limitations. The simple memorizing of facts and descriptions from text-books manifestly falls far short of true history study. How far a good teacher may supplement, criticise, and energize the facts of a text-book so as to give them actuality may be fairly asked. But even before any text-book is or can be used, we may get at the soul of the matter through a direct personal presentation of stories by the teacher and in the midst of a running fire of questions, suggestions, and reasoning at causes which both stimulate interest and thought, and give a strong tone of reality to the events discussed.

The Method of Oral Presentation

We have called for a vivid and realistic presentation of a narrative and its setting by the teacher.

In one sense this is a heavy demand upon teachers, and one to which they are not much accustomed to respond. Skill, facility, and tact in this line of exertion are acquired by most teachers slowly. It seems, however, to be a misapprehension to suppose that only the gifted few are capable of this kind of success. Those who are slow and halting in speech, or who have no special gift for story-telling, may be eminently successful. In truth, one of the first and most important requirements of a teacher in successful story-telling is to hold his tongue, to check his volubility. He must, however, acquire skill in making facts and situations vivid to children. He must possess the magic wand which touches their imaginations so that they construct pictures that approximate the distinctness of reality. First, the teacher himself must possess feeling and imagination; he must see things with great distinctness and detail, and he must find homely phrases, striking or amusing analogies, gestures, and facial expression. Graphic sketches and outlines on the blackboard must be at his disposal. He must learn to exercise all his faculties with great freedom before a class. He must be quick in sympathy and ready to interpret a child's

questions or remarks. The previous knowledge of children, their home experiences, as well as facts remembered from books, must be called out in elucidation of the topic under discussion. But it is necessary to use these home materials without allowing either teacher or pupils to be drawn aside from the main topic. The intelligent judgment and self-activity of pupils should be exercised at every turn in the story. They are stimulated by questions as to facts, causes, probable sequence, reasons.

A particular kind of preparation for such oral lessons, rendered obligatory by the whole character of the work, is the clear and definite arrangement of the story into a series of topics. It is not sufficient to read the story through carefully so as to get a clear sequence of events and a memory for the facts. The teacher's mind should cast the story into a series of unities or topics, each of which has a nucleus or centre with a body of related facts which find their cause and explanation in this centre. Each topic is projected as a unit in the mind of the teacher. It should be an essential link in a chain of important sequences. In the recitation each topic should be mastered before proceeding to what follows. As each topic is presented by the teacher and reproduced by the pupil, a brief outline may be kept on the board, of the topics discussed, and this outline becomes the basis of all reproductions after the whole subject has been presented.

This power to get at the essential segments or the pivotal points in a story is an excellent logical training for the teacher. He must see a series of events in their essential aspects, in their causal relation, and in their relative importance. Such a careful analysis of a story into clearly distinct topics calls for a thoughtful digestion of the materials, which goes far toward a pedagogical mastery of a subject for teaching purposes. A teacher must learn to be thoughtful, logical, and clear-headed.

But if the teacher has learned to think sensibly and to organize his lesson into prominent headings which will stand a close logical test, it is clear that the children will be trained into logical and rational modes of thinking and study. Children will learn to do more than simply memorize. They learn to estimate and judge the value of the points discussed, to discriminate between the important and secondary facts, to notice the proper relations and groupings of facts.

This series of topics upon which we have laid such stress should be expressed on the blackboard in the form of suitable words, phrases, or short sentences. After a topic has been fully presented by a teacher, it is often well to ask the children for a brief phrase which suggests the gist of the matter. Some expression furnished by the pupils may serve for the heading, or it may be modified, to give a more definite and exact form.

The Reproduction by the Pupils

When the teacher has done his full duty in a vigorous and clear presentation of the facts in a topic, his next duty lies in devolving the work of reproducing a story upon the children. It is for the pupils now to show how attentive they have been, and how fully they can recall and express the ideas already presented. Let the teacher firmly decline to do the pupil's part of the work. Let him not pump answers from the children. The briefest possible questions, or corrections, or checks, or signs of approval are all that is needed. Brevity and silence are the teacher's chief merits at this stage of the work.

The topic should generally be reproduced more than once; at first, perhaps, by one of the readier pupils, and then by two or three others. The children's reproductions will show misconceptions that must be corrected by other pupils or by the teacher. Still further explanations may be given by the teacher after the child's work is finished. We cannot be satisfied with anything short of a thorough appropriation of the facts as at first presented. It will pay to stick to one topic till the victory is complete. The children have no books to study, and if they ever get the facts, they must do it now. The welding must take place while the iron is hot or it

will never be done. Close attention is indispensable in this work, and if it can be first secured by the teacher in the classroom, its effects will be felt in their home and private studies. If children dawdle when studying at home, it is partially because they are allowed to dawdle during recitations at school.

One of the incidental advantages that springs from oral presentation and reproduction of history stories is a straightforward, forcible use of good English. But many corrections of faulty words and phrases are made necessary. These corrections may be made quietly by the teacher without seriously interrupting the pupil's course of thought. Our primary aim, however, is not language drill, but the culture that lies in history.

After a series of topics has been worked out with alternate presentation and reproduction, it is in place to call for a full narration of the whole subject by one or more pupils. The brief outline on the board ought to be sufficient to guide the pupil without questions from the instructor. Success in this reproduction is a final test of the mastery of the story. The topics presented one day, however, should be reviewed the next by the students, and this repetition continued till the mastery is felt to be satisfactory.

The children should keep a blank-book, such as an ordinary composition book, into which the outlines developed may be copied by the children once or

twice a week. It should be done in ink, with neatness and care, and these outlines may serve well, at the close of the term, for the final review and reproduction.

Difficulties

There are several difficulties in the way of satisfactory oral work of the kind described which prevent practical teachers from undertaking it: —

1. In the training of our teachers not much care is taken to acquire the ability to present a subject well to a class. It is an art difficult to acquire in many cases, and not generally regarded as valuable. The function of the teacher has been found in assigning and testing rather than in the presentation of knowledge.

An oral method of teaching is liable to great abuses, because it is really a difficult art. But it is reasonable for us to raise the question whether a teacher, in declining to treat certain subjects orally which are best adapted to it, is not consulting his convenience and laziness rather than the rules of his art. If a teacher does not know a subject well enough to present it in a clear and interesting way to his class, he does not know it as well as a teacher should. He has not thoroughly assimilated it and organized it in his own mind. The teacher who is called upon to present a lesson to a class will master

it in a more effective way than the mere hearer of recitations. He will also seek to adapt his facts to the minds of the class and to make them clear by means of drawings or illustrations and other devices. If his own mind is awake and aglow with the ideas he is discussing or presenting, the children's thoughts will kindle. If it is possible to put such safeguards around oral teaching as will keep it from degenerating into talk, we shall find it a means of stimulus.

Clear, vivid, animated presentation of ideas to a class, though difficult, is an excellent aim for teachers to keep in view, because it will regenerate their school activity. There are, of course, a good many lessons in arithmetic, grammar, and reading that must be learned from text-books. To these our remarks apply but indirectly. In geography, history, language, and natural science there are lessons in plenty that call for oral treatment, where pupil and teacher come face to face in the discussion of facts.

2. Oral teaching calls for close and constant *attention* from all members of a class — a somewhat difficult thing to secure. The habit of inattention formed in our schools reveals one of the most vulnerable points in our present method. There is a striking difference between American and European schools of the better sort, in this respect.

An exclusive text-book method of studying and teaching undermines attention in the classroom. The strongest attention is required in learning the

lesson before the recitation, but the class period is characterized by general looseness, except for each particular child when called up to recite.

An oral method is based fundamentally upon strict attention. The facts must be acquired in the class, or not at all. The habits of attention formed in good classroom work will also strengthen the children in home study and initiate them into the right method of attention and study. In reply to all this, it may be truly said that a vigorous teacher will secure attention whether teaching orally or from a text-book. However true this may be, there is a natural tendency to laxity in a text-book method, while the necessity for close attention is much more apparent and is really imperative in an oral presentation and treatment.

3. The growth of *self-activity* in the children should spring directly from oral instruction. But the idea that children should do everything for themselves, by their own self-activity, has been commonly used to support our text-book method and to bring discredit upon oral teaching. The ridicule heaped upon the "pouring in" and "drawing out" process has also confirmed us in the belief that our present method of learning and reciting from books is, after all, the best.

It is an admitted fact that children in our intermediate and grammar grades in town schools have very little self-reliance or thoughtfulness. They are

overwhelmingly inclined to mechanical methods of work, memorizing phrases in arithmetic, geography, and grammar. After an infinite amount of talking about self-reliance and self-activity by teachers, children become neither self-reliant nor self-active. Such terms as "self-activity" and "self-reliance" may be bandied about among teachers forever, but they will not save us from the inherent weaknesses of mechanical methods in teaching. What we need is more energy, spirit, and interest in the subjects, both among teachers and pupils. Will good oral teaching help us in this respect? There is some danger that our ideal of a teacher will be lowered by constantly thinking of him as a drill-master, a hearer of recitations, a tester of acquired facts. The best thing that a teacher can do is to stimulate and arouse.

The real genesis of self-activity and power to think should be found in these oral lessons where the instructor can adapt his explanations and questions to the individuals of his class. This is the best place to find out what is in a boy, and to bring out all the facts of his experience in the search for causes. The oral lesson, above all others, is the place to throw a child back upon his own resources of thought. But this requires expert skill.

4. It is difficult to get teachers to properly organize an oral lesson into topics, to hold in mind a clear, logical outline of points, and to make this outline the basis for reproductions and later reviews. They

forget to fix the chief points or topics as they go. They move over the ground, but neglect to stake it off as they go, and both teacher and pupils become muddled. Without a clear succession of distinct topics in oral lessons, the work becomes hazy and scattering, and the results must be desultory. Such an outline is indispensable if oral lessons are to be logical, clear, and of permanent value.

5. We are often met with the objection that time is wanting for such oral recitations in our present school programmes. This is true, but programmes can be modified. In several studies oral lessons have found a recognized place in the school programme, as is the case with general lessons, stories in primary grades, and elementary science in all grades. In these cases the text-book is acknowledged to be inadequate. If the same is found true of history lessons in intermediate grades, we shall find time for oral lessons. Two devices may be used to modify our present programmes. As oral recitations require more time, let us have but two such lessons a week, instead of five, and thus more than double the length of the period. Form the school into larger classes, combining several smaller classes into one for oral history lessons. The general tendency of oral lessons is to leave less time for seat-study during school hours, but more for close, intent recitation work.

6. One of the chief difficulties that stands in the way of good oral teaching is the lack of materials

such as a teacher can use for oral presentation and discussion.

The moment a teacher begins to treat a subject orally, he calls for more abundant and detailed materials on those topics than our text-books furnish. In geography, history, and natural science he goes on a skirmish for facts that have more meaning than the barren statements in our texts. He needs more that is interesting and significant.

This is true in the history stories. We require fuller and more detailed accounts of our leading pioneers. Quite a number of books containing history stories for children have been published of late, but most of them are too meagre. They are too much in bondage to the old text-book idea that it is a few leading facts that we want instead of pictures of men and of the times taken from life, full of adventure, spirit, and circumstance.

These are some of the difficulties and prejudicial customs that stand in the way of oral teaching.

There are other inherent objections that are emphasized by our experience. Oral teaching has been looked upon as one of the fads. It is thought to have had its day, run its course, and passed away with its mistakes. It brought some life and enthusiasm into school work, but was barren of results. It wasted time in fruitless discussions. All this was only too nearly true, and if oral teaching were now introduced among us on a large scale, it would prove

but partially satisfactory. The chief difficulty lies in the fact that the great majority of teachers are poorly equipped for their work. They do not know enough of their subject, and their knowledge is not organized so as to be brought into presentable shape. A good text-book is a godsend to a poorly equipped teacher as well as a help to a good one.

But there is a growing class of teachers who believe in their profession and are giving it their best energy. Oral teaching offers to such a ladder by which they may climb up to higher professional efficiency and success.

There is also at present a strong drift toward oral teaching in literature, natural science, and geography. All experts are now fairly well agreed that children cannot get their knowledge of plants, animals, and natural phenomena from books. Observation, experiment, and oral discussion are the only available avenues of approach to the natural sciences. In geography, also, the best work in third, fourth, and fifth grades is now done in oral lessons. Clear and graphic description, oral discussion and reproduction of topics, make up the essentials of good work. Maps, pictures, and books are tributary to this oral work. If these subjects are ever properly taught in our schools, it must be done in early grades, without text-books, by letting teacher and children stand face to face with the facts.

Parallel with the effort to introduce natural science and geography in spirited oral work is the effort to get our best literature through good story-telling into the lower and intermediate grades. First-grade children cannot read fables and fairy stories; they must hear them. "Robinson Crusoe" in the second grade, and mythical stories in the third, are best presented by the living voice of the teacher. There is no such vivid way of putting the best classical myths and stories before children in the intermediate grades as by oral presentation.

In history, also, a life-giving instruction at the threshold of study is just as dependent upon good oral presentation as in natural science, geography, and literature. Experience abundantly shows that to put history books into the hands of children at the beginning of history study is a blunt mistake. It is the special duty of the teacher to open the way to book study by a skilful and interesting oral treatment of stories.

The Solution of Problems in Oral Instruction

The question how far children can think for themselves, that is, can reason and draw inferences, is in part for good oral instruction to answer. It may seem strange to suggest that oral instruction in history should set up problems to solve. It has been so long the custom of history teaching to re-

quire merely the memorizing of facts that an independent thought-process or self-activity on the learner's part has been lost sight of. The chance to solve problems presented in oral history lessons opens up an interesting field both for teachers and children. History stories are full of problems which may stimulate the thinking power, if got before the pupil in their true bearings. Stories of adventure and heroic enterprise, such as the pioneer biographies, bring the actors into the presence of difficulties and dangers which they must have the inventive wit to circumvent or master. The story of Magellan is a series of problems and difficulties which this rare man made into stepping-stones to final success. La Salle, in exploring the great lakes and the Mississippi, is sometimes called the invincible Norman, because he could never be conquered by difficulties. The emergencies in which such men were placed, and out of which they rescued themselves, furnish choice opportunities to the best oral instruction. The story of the journey of the gold seekers to California, in 1849, illustrates this. The caravan of sixteen wagons, with forty-one men, was moving slowly along the Nebraska River. On the low hills, two or three miles away, they one day saw a great cloud of dust made by a large troop of horsemen; probably Indians on the war path, or out for plunder. What should the men and the long caravan of sixteen wagons do in this emergency?

At this point the teacher may call a halt and ask the children to solve the problem. It requires some time and thoughtfulness, and even some blundering on the part of the children; but they will soon work it out if left to their own power of thought, as the author has discovered on several occasions.

Later, upon this same journey, the caravan of heavily-laden wagons had just succeeded in crossing the salt desert west of the Great Salt Lake. One evening, worn out with travel, they reached the head waters of the Humbolt River, where they found a camping place and grass for their animals. While the others slept, four men were appointed to guard the camp. But, weary with travel, the four men, one after another, fell asleep, and a prowling band of Snake Indians from the north crept into the camp, cut the ropes of the horses and mules and drove them all away. Some three or four hours later the men awakened and discovered their loss. The Indians, on horseback, had a four hours' start. Behind the weary travellers, toward the east, lay the salt desert, which they had crossed with difficulty. To the west the trail stretched away six hundred miles to California and the gold mines, without a settlement between. The wagons were heavily loaded with all their goods. What should the gold-seekers do under these circumstances? Leave this for the children to decide. At least let them talk it over and make their several proposals, some of

which may prove ridiculous or impossible. Let them study the map if necessary. The more they think about it the more they will realize the desperate situation in which these men were placed. If it were toward the close of the recitation, it might be well to leave it, like a problem in arithmetic, for the next lesson.

In problems of this sort it is evidently the business of the teacher to make unmistakably clear to the children the conditions, that is, the environing difficulties which beset the men. The great thing at first is to get the facts which lead up to such an emergency and to have them clearly imaged in the minds of the children. In this connection appears the very great advantage of having stories which are simple, in which the surrounding conditions can be made perfectly clear to their understanding. This is a peculiarity of the pioneer history stories to a marked degree. This is more so, perhaps, than in any other class of stories that could be mentioned. The trappings of civilization are removed. The simplest conditions of nature must be met.

A general on the battle-field has to deal with a complex situation which a child cannot easily understand. A statesman in a political or diplomatic emergency is dealing with intricate and tangled relations which no child can appreciate. But the pioneer heroes were face to face with simple, crude situations which a child can grasp. For young chil-

dren, therefore, just beginning history, they are strikingly interesting and appropriate. Biographical stories taken from later and more complex periods of our history, such as those of Hamilton, Jefferson, Garfield, and Grant, are not so well suited to younger children. They cannot appreciate these men and their surroundings. They can solve no problems in connection with them unless it be some exploits of their boyhood life. Many writers of stories for children have not discriminated between the simple and the complex in biography.

Another advantage in many of these stories is that each has a central aim or purpose, which is constantly in the mind of the chief actors. This aim points the direction in which effort must be expended, and any intervening difficulties must be overcome. In one of his expeditions into the Rocky Mountains and beyond, Frémont, in command of a small band of explorers, found himself, about Christmas time, at the foot of the east slope of the Sierra Nevada Mountains. For several reasons he did not wish to winter in this barren region, and decided to cross the Sierra Nevada into California, in midwinter, over a lofty mountain-range, wholly unexplored. With this purpose in mind he set out to wrestle with the difficulties of deep snows, rugged mountains, and freezing weather. The aim set up gave purpose and direction to every day's effort.

In such stories as these the causal sequence be-

tween the facts is so close that the reasons for each action can be clearly seen. It is the logic of necessity which is here at work and which the children are following with intense concern. This also furnishes the back-bone of good thinking, and the purpose held in mind is the infallible standard upon which each proposed solution can be measured. When George Rogers Clark, in Kentucky, decided to drive out the English from the northwest, to capture Vincennes and Kaskaskia, make friends of the Indians, and thus wrest that whole region from the control of the English, he had a well-set, single purpose in his mind. All his later actions consist of a close series of problems which he solved, one after another, in working out this purpose. The teacher who handles this story orally with fourth or fifth grade children, should make these problems the wrestling grounds of thought, the very centres of interest, so that by the time they get through with Clark they will have experienced his hardships and triumphed in his success.

To get such a close causal connection of facts as is here implied, the evidence on the main topics of the story must be full and circumstantial. No brief summary or outline of facts will serve the purpose. Like General Grant at Vicksburg, we must settle down before these strongholds of thought and fight it out, if it takes all summer. In solving historical problems it is necessary to see clearly the geographi-

cal basis, the physical facts which condition the action. This requires a keen play of the imagination in imaging the situations. It illustrates the close relationship between history and geography or physical conditions. In these situations the teacher need not be afraid of wasting time upon details. The poet and the novelist have the wisdom to see that at such junctures as these, full descriptive detail is all-important, absolutely indispensable.

We return now to the question whether children can think or not. We are inclined to assert that the power to think and to reason out conclusions in the case of children depends upon their power to understand the surrounding circumstances. Even little children in the family and in the kindergarten reason correctly within the sphere of their positive knowledge. They often surprise us with their power to draw correct conclusions before they can speak plainly. One ground why we are prone to deny reasoning power to children is because they cannot reason about those things upon which grown persons reason. The trouble is that children memorize easily, and are often required to memorize things which they do not understand. Upon these things they cannot reason. Not even educated adults could reason upon such a basis. But children can reason very intelligently about all matters of thoroughly familiar and interesting knowledge. The fact is that in the family we require of children that they exercise their

reason up to the limit of their clear knowledge. Our own opinion is that the reasoning power grows and keeps pace with the development of the other powers, or, at least, much more nearly so than the schoolmaster has supposed. Indeed, if things fail to appeal to a child's reason and good judgment, he fails to have an interest in them.

The effort to reason out situations and results, such as we have illustrated in the history stories, deepens the interest and causes these stories to take a very strong hold upon the mind. Such work takes more time, but it gives a much clearer understanding and produces a much more lasting effect. Even a few stories treated in this way will bring the children to the point of understanding what history really is, and how it ought to be studied. The mere memorizing of the same lessons out of books can never produce this result.

We ask children to solve problems in arithmetic where certain facts are given and the child is to put them together, and, by a process of reasoning, work his way to another fact or conclusion. The arithmetic would be worthless, or nearly so, without this sort of training in reason. But we have seen that suitable history stories for children are just as full of problems as an arithmetic, only we have been accustomed to give the answers instead of the problems. In the nature of the case the historical problems have much greater intrinsic interest than those of arith-

metic. It is now generally admitted that history, properly taught, gives a fine cultivation to a very profitable kind of reasoning. It is also a kind of reasoning along lines of probability, which mathematics cannot furnish, but which common life daily demands.

A text-book cannot treat history in this way. It can simply present the cold facts and leave the student to think or not to think, as he chooses. It gives simply answers, not problems. The teacher in oral instruction must supply this vital deficiency. He must bring the child up against problems and allow him a chance to think about them seriously.

The Development Process of Teaching

If the text-book cannot supply this kind of teaching, this setting of problems, this thought-struggle with difficult situations, the teacher may step in to supplement and invigorate the work of the books. But this so-called *development method* will seem to many teachers a poor makeshift or even perversion of historical teaching, on the ground that the history of the past cannot be drawn out of a child's mind. History, they say, is a positive body of facts, not dependent upon a child's thinking or experiences. But in saying that this development process is peculiarly appropriate to introductory history, there is no pretence that the historical facts can be elaborated

out of the child's mind. In the example given above the facts and conditions surrounding the actor are clearly presented by the teacher, and, with these things plainly in mind, a child is called upon to show how the present emergency is to be met. The aims and problems already discussed are of this thought-producing character. It is for the teacher to centre the thought upon the pivotal question. Good oral instruction consists largely in getting the preliminary facts before the children, so as to produce thoughtfulness in answering pivotal questions.

In the midst of the effort to interpret new situations, still another phase of development instruction of equal importance with that of problem-solving is found. It is, namely, the effort to bring the subject discussed into the closest contact with the child's previous experience. In short, he should be taught to utilize, as far as possible, all the resources which his life's experiences have accumulated. To keep a child constantly at work revising and reorganizing his experiences as a means of interpreting or assimilating new knowledge, is one of the most serious and fruitful lines of effort open to the teacher.

It may be said, usually, that a child possesses in his accumulated experiences the facts which, if properly focused upon the problem, will help him to its interpretation. The fires which he has kindled on some picnic in the woods will help him to picture the campfires of explorers. The bows and arrows and wooden

guns which he has used in sham or real battles on the playground will serve him in good stead for explaining greater conflicts.

But in many cases he is not made conscious of these close connections between his own knowledge and the present difficulty. He stands in blank wonder or confusion before the topic. The teacher must come to the rescue and set up a line of communication between a point in his past experience and the present emergency. The proper question, perhaps, needs to be dropped into his mind, and a flash of intelligence like an electric spark is soon evidence of the live connection between his past and his present. The teacher who is apt in the choice of such questions, and who is constantly probing and stirring among a child's previous thoughts and doings, thus causing him to use independently his store of knowledge, is in so far at least a good teacher. No better mental habit can ever be established in a child than that of falling back upon his own resources in emergencies.

In arithmetic a teacher observes unmistakably that a child's failure is his inability to bring to bear upon the new problem facts or principles previously mastered. The teacher must cause the child to recall a fact from some table in compound numbers, or the previous process of changing fractions to a common fractional unit. It is a commonplace experience with teachers in arithmetic to find children failing in that

subject because they do not think clearly the conditions of a problem as based upon previous knowledge. In a logical subject like arithmetic this defect is very apparent.

But for the interpretation of historical facts, teachers are slow to perceive that children are equally dependent upon their previous knowledge. They possess great store of interpretative experiences in their home life and labors, in their games and struggles on the playground, in their observations of people, trades, and occupations, in travel and sightseeing, and in all varieties of intercourse by which they become acquainted with people, their dispositions and character. A good teacher will get at these events and heartfelt experiences in previous child life, will unearth these treasures and put them into circulation. In the midst of the struggle of thought in the classroom he will drop the pointed question which causes a child to show a flash of intelligence and connect up with his past. Many people never learn to do this kind of thinking, possibly because the schools do so little of it. Some teachers may be slow to believe that a child's experiences are the materials with which to interpret historical events. But any boy or girl accustomed to ride horses will put a vivid meaning into Alexander's taming of Bucephalus, or Washington mounting his mother's favorite colt. The games of boys and girls on the playground have made them acquainted with

those who are bold and fearless or timid and cowardly, with harsh or selfish children or with those who are kind and generous. These and other familiar classes of people they meet again among the actors in history. A boy on the playground often needs as much courage as he will ever find use for as a man on the battle-field, though he be a professional soldier.

If these things be so, the teacher must be an expert in child things, in the lore of childhood days and events. Perhaps neither College nor Normal School supply this kind of knowledge. It is none the less one of the chief requisites of a teacher. Each child, family, or neighborhood has also its peculiar forms of experience, so that a teacher in any class needs to be, to some extent, a local, a family, or child historian.

These things give the reason why children learning merely from books often memorize without intelligent understanding. For many children it is easier to memorize than to think, or to reason out results. In fact, children are often not made conscious of their power to interpret new lessons on the basis of what they know. Oral instruction in the hands of an intelligent teacher has here a fruitful field. It is not claimed that teachers who use text-books are regardless of this kind of training, but it may be truthfully said that text-book work tends toward mere memory drill, while oral and develop-

ment lessons tend to greater thoughtfulness and self-activity.

Now the stories which children study should be those which they can interpret on the basis of experience. The simple surroundings of the pioneers and of the early historical characters of Europe have this objective character. They are easily imaged in their relations to one another. Any child who has been in the woods and fields, who has noticed streams, marshes, thickets, and rough regions of country, who has seen nature in storm and sunshine and throughout the seasons — such a child possesses in his own experience most of the fundamental conditions that surround the heroes of early story and pioneer life. There is also a distinct advantage in bringing topics of present study into comparison with those of earlier lessons. This has not been very customary in history instruction, but the biographies used in the fourth and fifth grades are especially adapted to this sort of review. The history stories, as important units of study, have so many points of striking resemblance to one another that such comparisons are fruitful in results. Children in this way not only learn to interpret new stories, but they also get a stronger mastery and appreciation of the older familiar ones. A few examples of such comparisons will be presented.

The personal experiences and character of pioneer leaders may be brought side by side, as in the case

of Champlain and John Smith. In how many points were their experiences alike? Both were explorers passing up great rivers in boats or canoes and making maps of new countries. Both cruised also along the Atlantic coast, examining in part the same regions. Both were in constant dealings with the Indians, as friend or enemy. Both suffered the severest hardships and wounds. Both were governors of little settlements, and had to struggle for food and protection, and against disease and starvation. Which of these men passed through the more trying difficulties? The details of the stories will suggest several other interesting likenesses and contrasts.

A similar comparison may be set up between Columbus and Magellan in their great voyages. In what ways did they have similar experiences at the courts in Portugal and Spain? Compare Columbus' first passage across the Atlantic with Magellan's voyage across the Pacific. How do these two voyages compare as to distance and hardship endured? Which had the greater difficulties in controlling his men? In one respect they both aimed at exactly the same result. What was it? What was the reward promised to each of them for his service? Which was the greater achievement, the voyage of Columbus or the voyage of Magellan? In making such a comparison in the class many other interesting points of resemblance and difference will be called to mind. Maps of the world will have to be

examined to settle disputed points, and the leading facts in the lives of both these men will be brought out with greater distinctness.

Frémont's great exploring trip across the mountains to Salt Lake and California may be compared with the journey of Lewis and Clark up the Missouri River and over the Rocky Mountains to Oregon. Compare the passage of Lewis and Clark across the high ridge of the Rocky Mountains with the passage of Frémont over the Sierra Nevada in winter. What was the purpose of each of these expeditions? Compare their experiences with the Indians, and their boat journeys on rivers and lakes. What parts of their journeys touched the same regions, rivers, etc. Compare, on the map, the length of these two journeys and the physical difficulties overcome.

A comparison of the early life of Washington in Virginia with the early life of Lincoln in Indiana and Illinois, will bring out some interesting contrasts under somewhat similar conditions of life.

Compare Cortés' conquest of Mexico with George Rogers Clark's campaign in the northwest, for the capture of Vincennes and Kaskaskia. How did they raise their armies? In what ways did they treat with Indians? How do they compare in their courage and hardihood in meeting and overcoming difficulties? What were the results which sprang from the conquest in both cases, and which were the more impor-

tant? Compare the present population and wealth of the northwest with that of Mexico.

In order to suggest the scope and variety of such comparisons, we will mention a few additional examples.

Note the different places and times where attacks were made by Indians upon palisaded forts, such as Boonesborough, Watauga, Detroit, and others. Compare the personal exploits of such men as Robertson, Clark, Smith, Cortés, Washington, Sevier, and others. Judge them according to shrewdness and presence of mind in danger. Compare the English with the French, and with the Spanish explorers and settlers. The long canoe voyages on the rivers and lakes, by such men as Hennepin, Joliet, Lewis, and Clark and La Salle, are interesting topics for comparison. The battles fought, the defeats or victories which followed, and the results to which these expeditions led, may be measured one upon another. Place the lives of leading men, or important events, side by side to see what common lessons they teach and what similar results follow, and one will be astonished at the number of striking resemblances and bold contrasts brought out. Such comparisons train children into valuable habits of thought. They are a perpetual test to the memory of previous knowledge. They make reviews more instructive than the first acquisition of facts. They bring out new and interesting points of view, and produce thoughtfulness in judging

men and events. Much time is required for this kind of work, and not many stories can be treated in this way; but it will pay to do well whatever is attempted, even though the stories be few in number.

During the latter part of the fourth year, children should begin to read some of the simpler stories of American biography, such as Eggleston's "Stories of American Life and Adventure," Johonnot's "Stories of our Country," "Pioneers of the Revolution," and Hart's "Colonial Children." These are simple enough for children of this age. Into such book-stories they may put the same realistic interpretation which the previous oral treatment has taught them. The teacher should be able to supervise such readings, and thus encourage children to a wider scope of knowledge. It is fortunate to have this outlet for the superabundant energies of the brighter pupils. In their leisure time at home and at school, they may profitably read such books. Possibly the teacher may find time to talk with them about these readings.

Children of the fifth grade, with their increasing mastery of books, may greatly enlarge the range of this supplementary reading. The thorough oral treatment of stories is continued in the fifth grade. They should be eye-openers as to the true method of thinking and realizing history. There are quite a number of excellent story-books of American history which bright children of the fifth grade can read

and thus strengthen and enlarge their conceptions of life in the early heroic period of American history. The knowledge thus acquired, in a hearty and whole-souled way, will be of great value in the later study of history. In such stories as these, children gather the basal, elementary facts of history, the concrete stuff out of which history is made, and which our text-books, on account of lack of space, do not contain.

The use of maps and blackboard sketches in the first two years (fourth and fifth grades) should be constant. There is surely no way of understanding these historical tales without good maps. Both teacher and pupils should acquire freedom in sketching local or larger maps, and in diagraming situations on the blackboard. They serve the double purpose of a means to clearer comprehension and of an outward expression of thought. It is not very difficult to get children into the habit of map-making and map-interpretation, if only the teacher sketches freely. The physical difficulties imposed by rivers, deserts, lakes, mountains, forests, and marshes, should be made to stand out in the child's thought by means of maps, pictures, diagrams, descriptions, and comparisons of every sort. We are even willing to set free the constructive activities of children to reproduce as many of the objects of interest in the story as they can find tools and materials to shape. This is a natural impulse of children, and has been

generally looked upon as a piece of youthful play or nonsense; but we are now beginning to see in it the best educative forces of the child actually at work. The building of miniature forts, log huts, palisaded enclosures, caves, breastworks, canoes, boats, and ships, the use of tools, weapons, and instruments, the dress and outfit of the explorers, should be brought into requisition as far as circumstances permit. The things which cannot be made, can be represented in collections of pictures and in such drawings as children make.

Our conclusion is that problem solving and development work are legitimate forms of oral instruction in early history study. In order to explain more definitely these forms of instruction, the following story of George Rogers Clark is rendered in full, and the method of treatment is given at some length. A somewhat complete series of the early American stories is given in the three volumes of "American Pioneer History Stories," for these grades.

George Rogers Clark

Authorities. — American Commonwealths, "Indiana." Roosevelt, "The Winning of the West."

More than a hundred years ago, Clark, a young man from Virginia, who had settled in Kentucky, formed the plan of driving the English out of Indiana and Illinois, and, by making friends of the

Indians, of bringing over the whole of this region to the side of the Americans. Clark had been among the people of Kentucky a year or two, was a skilful hunter and woodsman, and had become a bold leader of war-parties against the Indians. He was only about twenty-five years old, but he decided to undertake the raising of an army of Virginians and Kentuckians, to go in boats down the Ohio, capture Vincennes and Kaskaskia from the British, and then force the Indians to be friends to the Americans. Clark had no money to hire soldiers or to keep up an army, and the men, unless well paid, would be unwilling to go into such a dangerous undertaking.

It was during the Revolutionary War, and the English, assisted by the Indian tribes, had strong forts at Vincennes, in Indiana, at Kaskaskia, Illinois, and at Detroit, Michigan. At these places the Indians received guns, ammunition, and white leaders, and were encouraged by the British to make war upon the American people who were settled in Kentucky, against men, women, and children. For it was the practice of the Indians in attacking the settlers in Kentucky, to kill or capture men, women, and children. If they were not tomahawked or scalped, they were carried away to the Indian villages north of the Ohio River, and made slaves to the Indians.

Clark decided first to go back over the mountains to Virginia to see Patrick Henry and his council.

Kentucky at this time belonged to Virginia. He travelled on horseback through the woods and over mountains, starting October 1, 1777. He was a month in reaching his home, having travelled 620 miles through the roughest country. Meeting the governor he persuaded him that his proposed plan was a good one and was promised help. He was given $6000 in paper money, and each man who should join his army was promised three hundred acres of land. Clark was made a colonel of militia and given permission to raise an army of seven companies of fifty men each.

Clark now returned over the mountains toward Pittsburg. He was well known along the Monongahela River, and began to raise recruits for his army from the settlers and backwoodsmen of this district. At Red Stone Old Fort (Brownsville) on the Monongahela, twenty miles above Pittsburg, he embarked his men on flat-boats, called "broad-horns," and floated down to Pittsburg. Here his supply of powder and provisions was put on board. A number of hardy settlers and their families joined him to form a settlement near the falls of the Ohio. At Wheeling more supplies were taken on, and at the mouth of the Kanawha a company of recruits joined him. With his boats, men, and supplies he proceeded to an island just above the falls of the Ohio. Here he cleared a place for a palisade and blockhouse, and established the settlers with their

families. Some additional men joined him here, and he spent part of his time drilling his little army. The men were not in uniform but wore the hunting shirt, leggings, and moccasins of the backwoodsmen. They were armed with the long, heavy, flintlock rifles, and with hatchets and long knives in their belts. Clark felt that the time had now come for him to explain to the men his full plan. He called them together and told them for the first time that he proposed to capture Vincennes and Kaskaskia. At this some were frightened and a few from Tennessee decided to return home, but Clark refused to let them go. At night, however, they escaped the guard, waded to the Kentucky shore, and took to the woods. In the morning Clark sent some of his more trusty men after them, but recaptured only a few of them.

With the rest of the men, 153 in number, Clark now made ready to set out for the capture of Kaskaskia and Vincennes. He saw that it was a very dangerous undertaking, but for that very reason he liked it the more. Getting into their boats they plunged down over the rapids, and putting the men to the oars they hastened night and day till their boats reached an island at the mouth of the Tennessee River. Landing here, Clark met a small party of American hunters who had just lately come from Kaskaskia. They told him that the fort was strong and in good repair, the soldiers of the garrison well

trained, and the commander was watching the Mississippi River for any hostile force that might come up to capture the place. The French fur traders and boatmen upon the river were on the watch to give the commander notice of any war party.

Clark, however, did not intend to go up the river, but to march across the country and to capture the fort by surprise. The hunters thought this would be possible. They joined him eagerly, and promised to guide him by the shortest route to the fort. Clark determined to march at once against Kaskaskia. Taking their new allies for guides, the little army of less than two hundred men started north across the wilderness, scouts being scattered well ahead of them, both to kill game and to see that their march was not discovered by any straggling Frenchman or Indian. The first fifty miles led through a tangled and pathless forest, the toil of travelling being great. They mired in the swamps and lost their way. After that, the work was less difficult, as they got out among the prairies. But on these great level meadows they had to take extra care to avoid being seen. Once the chief guide lost his way, and the whole party was thrown into confusion. Clark was very angry, but in a couple of hours the guide found his bearings, and led them straight on their course. Clark, with his army, moved along so quickly and quietly that no one was expecting him.

On the evening of the fourth of July they reached the river Kaskaskia, within three miles of the town, which lay on the further bank. They kept in the woods till after it grew dusk and then marched silently to the little farm on the hither side. The family were taken prisoners, and from them Clark learned that some days before the townspeople had been alarmed at the rumor of a possible attack, but they were now off their guard. There were a great many men in the town, mostly French, the Indians having for the most part left. The commander had two or three times as many men under him as Clark, and he would certainly make a good fight, if not taken by surprise. It was Clark's boldness and the speed of his movements which gave him a chance of success, with the odds so heavily against him.

Getting boats, Clark ferried his men across the stream under cover of the darkness and in silence. He then approached Kaskaskia in the night, dividing his force into two divisions, one being spread out to surround the town so that none might escape, while he himself led the other up to the walls of the fort. Inside the fort the lights were lit, and through the windows came the sound of violins. The officers of the fort had given a ball, and the mirth-loving French, young men and girls, were dancing and revelling within, while the sentinels had left their posts. One of the captives showed Clark a postern gate by the river side, and through this he

entered the fort, having placed his men at the entrance. Advancing to the great hall where the dance was held, he leaned silently with folded arms against the door-post, looking at the dancers. An Indian, lying on the floor of the entry, gazed intently on the stranger's face as the light from the torches within flickered across it, and suddenly sprang to his feet, uttering the unearthly warwhoop. Instantly the dancing ceased, while the men ran towards the door. But Clark, standing unmoved and with unchanged face, bade them grimly to go on with their dancing, but to remember that they now danced under Virginia and not under Great Britain. At the same time his men burst into the fort and seized the officers, including the commander, Rocheblanc, who was in bed.

Immediately Clark had every street secured and sent runners through the town, ordering the people to keep close to their houses on pain of death. Before daybreak he had them all disarmed. The French of the town were greatly frightened. The unlooked-for and mysterious approach of the backwoodsmen, their sudden attack, their wild and uncouth appearance, combined to fill the Frenchmen with fear. They believed also that the Kentuckians were harsh and cruel men. Clark did not want to injure the French, but wished, rather, to make fast friends of them. The next morning he called together their chief men from the village and told them that he desired in no way to injure, but to

treat them as brothers and give them all the rights of Americans. The French were so delighted with this speech that they passed at once from despair to the greatest joy, scattered flowers through the streets, sang and danced. The other French settlements along the river in Illinois heard with pleasure of this good treatment and became at once the firm friends of Clark. The French were Catholics. When Gibault, the priest, asked Clark whether the Catholic church might be opened, the reply was that, as a commander, he had nothing to do with the churches except to protect them from insult, and that by the laws of the Republic, the Catholic church had as great privileges as any other.

But though he had captured the fort and made friends of the French, Clark was still surrounded by the most serious dangers. There were many tribes of warlike Indians in Illinois, Indiana, and other surrounding states who had long been bitterly hostile to the Kentuckians. Their chiefs and warriors gathered now from far and near to see what had happened at Kaskaskia, and when they saw Clark's little army they began to show little respect or fear of him. His own army was not only small but, as their time of service came to an end, many of them wished to return home. His men were naturally independent and wilful, and he had not the means with which to hire them for longer service. Virginia was hundreds of miles away across the mountains and

was fully occupied with the war of the Revolution, so that Clark could expect no help from that quarter. The British at Vincennes and Detroit had much larger forces and supplies than Clark, and they had the strong support of all the Western tribes of Indians. Clark had not attacked Vincennes on his way down the Ohio, because he feared it would be too strong for him.

Clark now set himself to the task of overcoming these difficulties.

Everything depended upon his having a brave little army of trained backwoodsmen with which to fight if necessary. He had four excellent captains and he now persuaded one hundred of his men, by gifts and promises, to stay with him eight months longer. The others, about fifty in number, he allowed to return to their homes. The French now learned from Clark that he was about to return to the falls of the Ohio and leave Kaskaskia to the British. This frightened the French, so that they begged him to stay. He finally, and with apparent reluctance, decided to remain, but required strong promises of support from the French, and enlisted a large number of young Frenchmen in his army and distributed them among his well-trained backwoodsmen. He then drilled this new army daily, till they became thoroughly trained. In this way he kept his army as numerous and strong as at first.

The British still held a strong fort at Vincennes

on the Wabash. Clark now wished to capture this place, but did not know how strong it was, nor how many British soldiers defended it. The people living in the village near the Vincennes fort were also French.

Clark now told the French at Kaskaskia that he was about to march with his little army to destroy the fort and village at Vincennes, because they belonged to and were friendly to the English. But the French at Kaskaskia, who had friends and kinsmen at Vincennes, begged him not to do so. For if he would wait, two of their best men, with other Frenchmen, would go to Vincennes and persuade the French people of the village to desert the English. Clark agreed to this and the two men, with Gibault, the priest, and others, set out in a boat for Vincennes. When they arrived they found only a few English soldiers at the fort, and soon persuaded the French inhabitants to join Clark. They also went to the fort and compelled the men to pull down the English, and to put up the American flag. As soon as this news reached Clark he appointed Captain Helm, one of his best men, and a few French volunteers to go to take possession of the fort and hold it.

The Indians along the Wabash were so much astonished at the sudden change that they began to think of joining Clark. Tabac was an Indian chief living on the river below Vincennes. Because his

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tribe controlled the mouth of the river, he was called "The Door of the Wabash." Clark sent word to him to join the British or the Americans as he pleased. After thinking it over a few days, Tabac decided to join the "Long Knives" as he called the Kentuckians. After this the other tribes along the Wabash and around Vincennes were pacified by Helm and Clark.

Clark now took upon himself the greater task of dealing with the huge horde of savages, representing every tribe between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi, who had come to Illinois, some from a distance of five hundred miles. They wished to learn just what had happened and to hear for themselves all that the "Long Knives" had to say. They gathered to meet him at Cahokia (north of Kaskaskia), chiefs and warriors of every grade, Ottawas, Chippewas, Pottawottomies, Sacs and Foxes, and other tribes. The straggling streets of the little town were thronged with hundreds of dark-browed, sullen-looking savages. They strutted to and fro in their dirty finery, or lounged about the houses, inquisitive and insolent, hardly concealing their thirst for bloodshed and plunder.

Fortunately, Clark knew exactly how to treat them. He was always on his guard, while seemingly very cool and confident. But on the third night a crowd of reckless warriors tried to force a way into the house where he was lodging, and to

carry him off as a prisoner. Clark had been suspicious of their purpose and was on the lookout. His guards were at hand and promptly seized the savages. The townspeople also took the alarm, and were in arms in a couple of minutes in favor of Clark. He instantly ordered the French militia to put the captives, both chiefs and warriors, in irons. His boldness was completely successful. The crestfallen prisoners humbly begged his pardon and said they were only trying to see whether the French were really the friends of Clark. They then desired to be released. Up to this time Clark had treated the Indians with great kindness, but he now refused to grant their request, and treated them with scorn and indifference, even when the chiefs of the other tribes asked him to let them go free. While the whole town was in confusion, Clark seemed wholly undisturbed, and did not even shift his lodgings to the fort for safety. But he secretly filled a large room next to his own with armed men, and the guards were kept ready for instant action. To make his pretended indifference more complete, he assembled a company of ladies and gentlemen who danced nearly the whole night. The savages were much perplexed, and held several councils among themselves during the night.

"Next morning Clark called all the tribes to a grand council. He then released the captive chiefs, that he might speak to them in the presence of their

friends and allies. After all the ceremonies of Indian etiquette had been finished, Clark stood up in the ring of squatted warriors, while his riflemen, in travel-worn hunting-shirts, clustered behind him. Taking the bloody war belt of wampum, he handed it to the chiefs whom he had taken captive, telling the assembled tribes that he cared neither for their treachery nor enmity. He had a right to put them to death, but instead of this he would escort them outside the town, and after three days begin war upon them. Pointing to the war belt, he challenged them to see which could make it the more bloody. Now that he had finished talking to them he wished them to depart at once." All the Indian chiefs, including the prisoners, replied in turn that they wished for peace and were sorry that they had ever sided against him.

" Clark then rose again and told them that he came not as a counsellor, but as a warrior ; not begging for peace, but carrying in his right hand, peace, in his left hand, war. To those who were friendly he would be a friend, but if they chose war, he would call from the thirteen council fires (thirteen colonies), warriors so numerous that they would darken the land. At the end of his speech he offered them the two belts of war and peace. They eagerly took the peace belt. But Clark declined to smoke the calumet (peace pipe) or to release all his prisoners, and insisted that two of them should be put to death.

The Indians even consented to this, and two of their young men were surrendered to him. Advancing they sat down before him on the floor, covering their heads with blankets to receive the tomahawk. Then Clark at the last granted them full pardon and peace, and forgave the young men their doom. The next day after a peace council there was a feast, and the friendship of the Indians was fully won. Clark ever after had great influence with them. They admired his personal prowess, his oratory, his address as a treaty maker, and the skill with which he led his troops. Long afterwards, when the United States authorities were trying to make treaties with the Indians, it was noticed that the latter never would speak to any other white general while Clark was present."

Clark had now settled his affairs with the Indians, but a still greater difficulty awaited him. General Hamilton, the English commander at Detroit, knew well how small Clark's army was. He was a man of great energy, and immediately began to prepare an expedition to recapture Vincennes and drive Clark out of Illinois. French spies and agents were sent out by the English at Detroit, to stir up the Indians in Illinois, Indiana, and the northwest. Hamilton himself was to command the main army against Vincennes. "Throughout September every soul in Detroit was busy from morning till night mending boats, baking biscuits, packing provisions in kegs

and bags, collecting artillery stores, and in every way preparing for the expedition. Fifteen large boats were procured, each able to carry from one thousand to three thousand pounds. These were to be loaded with ammunition, food, clothing, tents, and especially with presents for the Indians. Cattle and wheels were sent ahead to the most important portages on the route. A six-pound gun was also forwarded." Before starting, feasts were given to the Indian tribes, at which oxen were roasted whole (barbecue), while Hamilton and the chiefs of the French sang the war song in solemn council, and received the pledges of armed assistance and support from the savages.

On October 7 the expedition left Detroit. Hamilton started with 177 whites (British regulars, Canadian French, and Detroit militia) and 60 Indians. About 260 Indians joined him on the way, so that upon reaching Vincennes his army was 500 strong. In sailing the boats across Lake Erie to reach the mouth of the Maumee River, they were overtaken by darkness and a strong gale and were almost swamped. The waters of the Maumee were low and the boats were poled slowly up against the current, reaching the portage, where there was an Indian village, October 24. Here a nine-miles portage was made to one of the sources of the Wabash. This stream was so low that the boats could not have gone down it, had it not been for the beaver dam, four miles below

the landing place, which backed up the current. "A passage was cut through the beaver dam to let the boats through. The traders and Indians thoroughly appreciated the help given them at this difficult point by the beavers (for Hamilton was following the regular route of traders, hunters, and war parties), and none of the beavers of this dam were killed or molested. They were left to repair the dam, which they always speedily did whenever it was damaged."

The Wabash was shallow in many places, and swampy in others. Frost set in and the ice cut the men as they hauled the boats over the shoals. The boats often needed to be beached and calked, while both whites and Indians had to help carry the loads round the shallow places. At every Indian village it was necessary to stop, hold a conference, and give presents. At one of these villages the Wabash chiefs, who had made peace with Clark, came and joined Hamilton. Some of Helm's scouts from Fort Vincennes were also captured. War parties were sent out to surround Vincennes and to cut off any messengers that might be sent to Clark or to Kentucky. When Hamilton finally reached Vincennes, all the French deserted Clark and joined the English, so that Helm was left with only two or three Americans, and they were forced to surrender.

Hamilton's spies now brought him word that Clark had but 110 men in Illinois, while Hamilton

had 500. Had he pushed forward at once to attack Clark, he might have captured his force. He did not fear that Clark, with such a small body of men, would try to recapture Vincennes. He allowed the Indians to scatter to their homes for the winter and the Detroit militia to return to Detroit. Eighty or ninety white soldiers were kept at the fort, and about as many Indians. In the spring he expected to begin the war again on a large scale with a thousand men, and with light cannon with which to batter down the stockades. He expected not only to defeat Clark in Illinois, but to drive the Americans out of Kentucky.

Clark, on the other hand, could expect no reënforcements from Kentucky or Virginia, nor any further aid from the French in Illinois. In the spring Hamilton was certain to have an army so strong that he could not resist it. For a long time Clark could not get exact information of what had happened at Vincennes, nor of the condition of things there. But at last news came from a French friend of Clark who had been at Vincennes. He was a trader, named Vigo, from St. Louis. Having gone to Vincennes, he was at first imprisoned by Hamilton, but afterwards was released and returned to tell Clark the news. He said there were eighty white men, besides Indians, with Hamilton in the fort, with three pieces of cannon and swivels. There was also at the fort plenty of ammunition and pro-

visions. It was now the last of January, and early in the spring other British soldiers, from Canada, besides 1000 Indians, would join Hamilton. Clark at once decided to march with his 170 men and attack Vincennes before spring opened. He first, however, sent out a large row-galley with small cannon and 40 men. It was to go up the Ohio and Wabash and be ready to assist the soldiers who were to march across southern Illinois by land.

With this 170 Kentuckians and French he set out from Kaskaskia, on the seventh day of February. The route by which they had to go was 240 miles in length. It lay through a beautiful and well-watered country of groves and prairies, but at that season the march was one of hardships and fatigue. There were no roads, no houses for shelter. There were no paths through the prairies and swamps, no bridges over swollen streams. The weather had grown mild so that at first there was no suffering from the cold, but it rained, and the melting ice caused great freshets, and all the lowlands and meadows were flooded. "Clark's great object was to keep his troops in good spirits. Of course he and his officers shared every hardship and led in every labor. He encouraged the men to hunt game and to feast on it like the Indian, each company in turn inviting the other to the smoking and plentiful banquet. One day they saw a great herd of buffaloes and killed

many. They had no tents, but at nightfall they kindled large camp-fires and spent the evening merrily around the piles of blazing logs, in hunter fashion, feasting on beans, ham, and buffalo hump, elk saddle, venison haunch, and the breast of the wild turkey, some singing of the chase and of war, others dancing after the manner of the French trappers and wood-runners. Thus they marched hard but gleefully and in good spirits until, after a week, they came to the drowned lands of the Little Wabash. The channels of its two branches were a league apart, but the flood was so high that they now formed one great river five miles wide, the overflow of water being three feet deep in the shallowest part of the plains between and alongside the main channels. Clark instantly started to build a pirogue, or boat, out of the trunk of a large tree. Then crossing over the first channel, he put up a scaffold upon the edge of the flooded plain. He ferried his men over and brought the baggage across and placed it upon the scaffold; then he swam the pack-horses over, loaded them as they stood in the water beside the scaffold, and marched his men on." They crossed the second channel in the same manner.

The next day they came to a branch of the Wabash which was so flooded that they could not cross. Having found a dry place to camp, they waited till morning and marched down to where this branch

joined the Wabash. They were now ten miles from Vincennes, seven of them being the valley of the Wabash, covered to a depth of three or more feet with water. They were entirely out of provisions, and the boat was not expected for several days. Four men were sent out to see if they could not find boats opposite Vincennes, but they could not get to the Wabash. Rafts were then made and four other men were sent to search for boats, but they found nothing, after wading in the water all day and night. One little boat was found by another party, and two men were sent with it to search for the big boat that was coming up the river. For two days now, the men had been working hard, with nothing to eat, and the Frenchmen began to talk of going home. To keep the men busy, Clark set them to work making canoes on the bank. At noon they saw a party of Frenchmen from Vincennes coming down the river in a boat, and called to them. They came ashore, told Clark that Hamilton knew nothing of the little army, and that the French people at the village were friendly to Clark. They said, also, there were two canoes adrift on the river above. One of these Clark secured. This day one of the men killed a deer and brought it in, and this gave a bite to eat for each of the 170 men.

They now had boats enough to ferry the army across the main channel, and they did so the next day, and the men walked three miles through the water,

in places up to their necks. It rained all day and they camped on a little hill that night without food. The next day they marched three miles further on through the water with nothing to eat. That night the weather turned cold and the wet clothing of the men froze on them. The next morning the men were nearly tired out. There were still four miles of water to wade through, breast deep. Clark encouraged his men to follow and plunged first into the water. It was covered with a thin ice, but the men gave a shout and followed him. "Clark's tact and resource were never more remarkably displayed than here. As he had managed the Indians, so now he knew just how to manage the Creoles. He laughed at the hardships; he played the buffoon, blacking his face and breaking in upon the disconsolate crowd with horse-play. Mounting 'a little antic drummer,' a valuable ally with his pranks in the strait, on the shoulders of a tall sergeant, the sergeant dashed ahead into depths where the little fellow would have found no bottom. Meantime the drum rattled on merrily, and Clark, striking up a song or a cheer, plunged after, making light of everything. But behind the forced lightness there was a stern hand. Twenty-five picked men formed a rear-guard with orders to slay any one that faltered."

At last they reached the edge of the woods where they thought the water stopped, but the dry land was further on. Some of the men gave out, too weak

to walk. The canoes ran back and forth and helped the weak to reach land. As they touched the solid ground many fell down, hardly able to stand any longer. But the day was bright, fire was kindled in the woods, their clothes were dried, and, luckier still, some squaws and children came along in a boat with a quarter of a buffalo, some corn, tallow, and kettles. These were captured, and "after eating some broth" the men felt better. Warmed, dried, and refreshed, they began to jest over the hardships they had just passed through.

But the fort and the village were not yet captured, and Clark's little army was so small that if his enemies knew how few soldiers he had, it would be hard to capture the place. Clark decided first to seize the French village near the fort, and to make the people think his army much larger than it really was. In the afternoon he captured a Frenchman who was out shooting ducks. This man was sent back to the French village with word that Clark with his army was about to storm the place, and for all the people in the village to keep quiet unless they wished to be severely punished. "As the army advanced among trees and over ridges, a shrewd ruse made the number appear larger than it really was. The little flags, given the French recruits at Kaskaskia when they enlisted, were paraded as ensigns of companies; the ranks marched and countermarched so as to be counted three or four times over; while Clark and

his captains, mounted on horses they had seized, galloped hither and thither as if ordering a vast array." Hamilton knew nothing of Clark's army till the village was taken and the Kentuckians began to fire on the fort.

Clark threw up an intrenchment across the road in front of the main gate of the fort, and that night the British in the fort and the Americans in the town kept up a constant firing of guns without doing much damage. In the morning, early, Clark demanded the surrender of the fort, but Hamilton refused. While they were waiting for an answer, Clark's men cooked and ate their breakfast, the first complete meal they had had for several days. Then the firing began again. The fort was surrounded on all sides, and not a man could show his face or hand without great danger. The Americans were fine riflemen, and could hit a silver dollar at a distance of one hundred yards. They kept behind houses, earthworks, and logs near the fort, and kept up such a constant firing of guns that several British soldiers were killed. The British could not use their cannon because, every time a port-hole opened, bullets flew into it too fast.

In the morning Clark sent a summons to Hamilton to surrender, suggesting that in case he had to storm the fort, he would treat those captured as murderers. Hamilton replied that British soldiers would do nothing dishonorable. The attack upon the fort was then

hotly renewed. In the afternoon, Hamilton raised a flag of truce, and later met, at the church in the village, Colonel Clark, who upbraided him for his cruelty in sending out the savage Indians to massacre men, women, and children. While Clark and Hamilton were warmly disputing at the church, a scalping party of Indians, which had been sent out by Hamilton against Kentucky, returned to Vincennes with their plunder and scalps. They were captured by Clark's men, brought up in sight of the fort, and nine of them were killed and their bodies thrown into the river. Clark finally drew up conditions which Hamilton accepted, and the next morning the British flag was hauled down and the fort with its arms and supplies turned over to Clark. The British marched out as prisoners of war. Hamilton and his officers were sent to Virginia as prisoners. The name of the fort was changed to Patrick Henry.

Having heard that a relief force with supplies was coming down the Wabash from Detroit, Clark sent Captain Helm with more than fifty men to meet them. He succeeded in capturing the whole party of more than forty men, and $50,000 worth of supplies, which were distributed as prize-money among the men.

The Indian tribes of Illinois and Indiana now came to Clark and made peace. From this time on Vincennes and Kaskaskia remained in the hands of the Americans. In the peace of Paris, which closed the Revolutionary War, the English acknowledged

the right of the thirteen colonies to the great Northwest which Clark had captured.

In 1779 Clark returned and settled at the Falls of the Ohio. He received a vote of thanks from Virginia, and enjoyed an immense respect and popularity among the pioneers, French, and western Indians.

Method of Treatment

In this story of Clark's conquest of the Northwest we will attempt to illustrate the chief phases of method in the oral treatment of history stories.

At the very beginning of the story the purpose of Clark in his great undertaking is clearly brought out, and this gives unity to all the later details of the narrative.

The following outline is suggested as an example of such a clearly defined series of topics as we have recommended: —

1. The aim of Clark.
2. The warfare with the English and the Indians and the situation in Kentucky.
3. Clark's journey to Virginia and its results.
4. Recruiting the army along the upper Ohio.
5. The trip down the Ohio from the Falls to the mouth of the Tennessee.
6. Secret march through southern Illinois and capture of Kaskaskia.
7. His kind treatment of the French.

8. The many and serious difficulties surrounding Clark.
9. How he renewed and strengthened his army.
10. The capture of Vincennes.
11. Clark's treatment of the Indians at Cahokia.
12. Hamilton's preparations at Detroit.
13. Hamilton's journey up the Maumee and down the Wabash.
14. Clark's difficult situation and his plan to meet it.
15. The march across southern Illinois in February.
16. Crossing the flooded Wabash.
17. Clark's approach and capture of the French village.
18. The attack upon the fort and its surrender.
19. Results of the capture of Vincennes and Kaskaskia.
20. Comparisons between this and other stories.

Such a distinct outline as this may serve as a basis for a thorough handling of the story in the class-room. At the close of the presentation of each topic such a brief phrase or title can be placed upon the blackboard, and as the class advances through the story, a complete, simple outline of the chief steps is kept clearly in mind. Such an outline of each story should be put by the children into their note-books.

The importance of good wall maps, and especially of blackboard sketches made at first by the teacher, is very great. In setting forth the aim of Clark in

the first topic of this story, the teacher, in two minutes, can draw a large sketch on the blackboard, including the Ohio River, a part of the Alleghany Mountains, and the Northwest, including Kaskaskia, Vincennes, and Detroit, which will make the whole situation at the beginning of the story very clear. A wall map may then be used to show the relation in which this blackboard sketch stands to the whole country at that time. The children should also be encouraged, in reproducing the story, to draw a similar sketch on the blackboard, and to locate the places. Later, in several parts of the story, special blackboard sketches made by the teacher, while presenting and discussing the lesson, are necessary. For example, Clark's descent of the river from Brownsville to the Falls; the trip from the Falls to the mouth of the Tennessee, and the secret march across southern Illinois to surprise Kaskaskia. Later, Hamilton's expedition from Detroit to Vincennes, along the Wabash, and Clark's march across southern Illinois, in February, against Vincennes. The route of every one of these journeys should be made unmistakably clear by a blackboard sketch, and the children may be easily encouraged to make similar drawings in their own work.

The Solution of Problems

The story of Clark furnishes a large number of excellent problems to stimulate the thought of children. We will indicate a few of these. After form-

ing his purpose, Clark's one great need was an army. How is he to secure it? This question may set the children to thinking along the same lines upon which Clark had to exercise his wits. But before this problem is set for the children they must understand the conditions which surrounded the Kentuckians; the warlike raids of the British and the Indians in Kentucky; the location of the forts; the situation of Kentucky, separated from Virginia by the broad and difficult mountains. Children can do but little thinking here without a clear grasp of the geographical situation. With these things in mind they may be asked: How can Clark raise an army? They may answer: He will ask the Kentuckians to join him. But are the Kentuckians willing to desert their homes on a long march into distant regions, leaving their families at the mercy of the Indians? How are the men to be paid for their months of absence from the home, among dangers, marches, and battles? Kentucky at this time belonged to Virginia. Perhaps Virginia might help them. In what ways might Virginia be of service to Clark in raising an army? Such questions lead up to Clark's journey to Virginia and its results.

Another interesting problem for Clark at Pittsburg is this: What sort of an outfit for his army must be provided before leaving Pittsburg? This will bring up the matter of boats, provisions, clothing, tools and firearms, ammunition, presents for the Indians, medi-

cines and other things which would be needed in their months' travelling and campaigning through these new countries. Such a question may lead the children to do some close and serious thinking along the same lines upon which Clark was compelled to show his forethought and good sense.

When Clark had reached the mouth of the Tennessee River with his little army, it was necessary for him to solve a difficult problem, namely, how to capture a strongly fortified place containing a well-drilled army two or three times as large as his own. Instead of telling the children just what he did, it may be better to ask them what it were best to do under the circumstances, and to spend perhaps five minutes in considering proposed plans. This will lead to a much sharper grasp of the plan which Clark adopted and of its advantages.

After Clark had captured Kaskaskia, and by kind treatment had won the friendship of the French, he found himself beset with the most serious difficulties. Each one of these is a problem demanding solution.

First, the term of service of his soldiers was about up and the men wished to return home, but without a strong army Clark could do nothing at all. How could he manage to hold his little army together and strengthen it? What promises could he offer the men to encourage them to stay with him? Could he get help from any other source? Possibly the French might help him. What about the Indians?

Could he expect any other help from Kentucky or Virginia? Then follows the account of what he actually did.

An equally serious problem is expressed by the question, How should he manage the Indians? They were growing bold and defiant. They were very numerous and had little respect for Clark and his small army. How can he command their respect and secure their aid against the English? These questions lead to one of the most interesting scenes in the story, — Clark in council with the Indian chiefs. The boldness, shrewdness, and self-command with which Clark solved this problem and brought the Indian chiefs to the point when they begged for peace and friendship is one of the most remarkable acts in American history, and children can appreciate its meaning. Some famous pictures have been painted to illustrate this scene.

Clark's devices for securing the surrender of Vincennes are a good illustration of his skill in management.

Clark's chief problem in the latter part of the story is how to defeat Hamilton. Hamilton, on the other hand, has the problem of how to circumvent Clark, and it will be interesting to inquire how each will strive to get the advantage of the other. Clark, however, is very remarkable both for the shrewdness of his plans and for the desperate boldness with which he executes them. When finally Clark

received news through Vigo of the condition of affairs at Vincennes, what plan is it best for him to adopt? What are his chances for capturing Vincennes before spring opens? What difficulties will have to be met? Then follows the march across southern Illinois to Vincennes. As the little army, destitute of food, is struggling across the flooded low lands of the Wabash, how will Clark keep up the spirits of his men? They are in the most desperate condition of hunger and cold. How will he encourage the weak and helpless and faint-hearted?

As Clark approaches the French village how can he make the French in the village and the English in the fort think that he has a very strong army?

These are a few of the interesting and important problems which Clark had to solve and in which children will be greatly interested. In most cases they should be allowed the privilege of working out these problems in whole or in part. It will give them a much keener appreciation of the story, of its hardships and bold exploits. It will give the children a chance to think and reason upon subjects within the range of their capacity and interest, and of estimating better Clark's character.

The *comparison* of Clark's exploits with those of other leaders in American history may also serve as an illustration of the advantages of such comparisons. The story of the early life of Washington, of this series of pioneer tales, includes an account of

Braddock's expedition against Fort Duquesne. Let Clark's expedition be compared with Braddock's. Braddock was supplied at great expense with a strong, well-equipped army of British regulars, with all the guns, ammunition, and stores of a complete baggage-train. Clark had first to gather up a very small army, and his supplies were of the most meagre sort, no uniforms, no cannon, no baggage train, and at first no discipline. Braddock moved slowly because he had to build a road for his army, wagons, and train. Clark moved swiftly, stopping to build no roads. The Indian and French scouts boasted that they observed daily from the mountain-sides the slow movements of Braddock's army, and were near his camp every night. They finally set a trap into which his whole army fell and was almost massacred by a much inferior force. Clark, on the other hand, moved so swiftly and secretly that he was inside the fort at Kaskaskia before his enemies knew that he had an army or was marching against them. The commander of Kaskaskia was captured in bed. Clark lost scarcely a man, while Braddock lost his army and his own life. Braddock fought against forces much inferior to his own in number and strength, and lost everything. Clark's enemies were much superior to his army in numbers and equipment, and yet he was completely victorious and lost scarcely a man. What was the chief cause of this striking difference?

A comparison of Cortés' expedition against Mexico with Clark's undertaking has some striking points of resemblance which children may discover later when they study the story of Cortés. Cortés' boldness in marching with a small army against a rich empire is like that of Clark. In the management of the Indian tribes so as to secure the aid of the powerful tribe of the Tlascalans, Cortés showed a shrewdness like that of Clark. Which of these leaders had greater difficulties to surmount? Cortés had vast numbers of enemies to deal with, but Clark not only had against him superior numbers, but the western Indian tribes were excellent fighters, and the English troops were quite equal in training and courage to his own men.

Which of these men was engaged in the more desperate adventures? The retreat of the Spaniards from the city of Mexico was a fearful struggle, such as Clark did not have to encounter; but if Clark had not been the most fearless of men he would certainly have been scalped with all his men by the Indians, while the hardships of Clark's men in crossing the drowned valley of the Wabash have scarcely been equalled. Which of these men was the more skilful in recruiting his army? In this respect they were very much alike and were both successful.

In which case were the results more important, the conquest of Mexico by Cortés, or the conquest of the Northwest by Clark? Which of these countries now

has the greater wealth and population, the northwestern states captured by Clark, or Mexico? Compare their chief cities in importance. If the English had held the Ohio Valley at the close of the Revolutionary War, how large would the United States be now, perhaps?

After dealing with Wolfe's capture of Quebec, it may be well to compare the results of the conquest of Canada by the English and Americans with the later conquest of the Northwest by Clark. In fact, Clark's success was the next great step in preparing the way for the growth of the American nation. There are several other important events of American history which may be brought into fruitful comparison with Clark's enterprise. Anthony Wayne's capture of Stony Point, and his later expedition against the Indians of Ohio and Indiana and the battle of Fallen Timber may be compared to advantage with the campaign of Clark.

In his personal deeds there are some striking points of resemblance between him and La Salle in council with the Indians, also Champlain and Frontenac in their dealings with the Iroquois.

It is well then to keep the children alert in the direction of comparing men and events. It teaches them to bring their previous studies into constant review, to discover interesting resemblances and contrasts, and to bring into a closer relationship events which teach the same lesson.

CHAPTER IV

SIXTH GRADE IN HISTORY

THAT part of American history which is proposed for treatment in sixth grade includes the early settlements, the growth of the colonies, and the French and Indian wars up to the outbreak of the Revolution. Children at this age are not philosophers, nor are they interested in abstract questions of government and social order, but in all the lively, picturesque, and adventurous phases of life.

This period, as a whole, is well adapted in its materials to instruct children because it is so simple and primitive in all its surroundings, occupations, social amusements, and politics. Even in the later period there are no large cities. By far the greater part of the people lived on farms or scattered estates. Modes of travel by boat or on horseback, methods of government and trade, were of a rude character, adapted to the simplest necessities.

But in contrast with the two preceding years, we now take up the chronological, consecutive development of the colonies, including in one movement the varied and complex elements of progress. Pupils

begin to trace the causes and results of historical events. This brings us to the consideration of one of the most difficult problems in teaching and even in writing history, namely, how to carry along simultaneously the main threads of historical action and to maintain a comprehensive grasp of the complex forces at work. In nearly all of our text-books we have brief summaries or comprehensive statements giving an epitome of leading events in each period; but it is a miscellaneous and incoherent body of facts which is thus collected. It is not suitable material of instruction for children.

In Spencer's "Aims and Practice of Teaching" Prof. J. E. Lloyd, while discussing the methods of teaching in history, says:—

"I take the epitome method first, as the most widely prevalent, at any rate in secondary schools, and undoubtedly the worst. It consists in placing in the hands of the pupil one of those cunningly devised summaries of all English history, thickly seasoned with dates and tables, in which an amazing amount of information is compressed within the narrowest limits, and then expecting the hapless youth or maiden to commit assigned portions to memory. I well remember the surprise which a pupil of mine, newly arrived at college from a school where this was the plan, expressed on getting, in a history examination paper, questions which involved a certain amount of thinking; 'I thought,' was the naïve

remark, 'we should have been asked to write out a reign.' Indeed, I have a lively recollection of the compendium to which I devoted many hours of my own school days, the most compendious and systematic of its kind, a history with all the life crushed out of it. Such books resemble nothing so much as the pemmican of American hunters — they are exceedingly compact, but at the same time a highly unpalatable form of intellectual sustenance. No one who has followed me in the account I have tried to give of the function of history will need to be told that the epitome system is radically vicious. There is a well-known maxim in education — 'the concise is the opposite of the elementary,' and in no field of study is this truer than in history. The compiler who rigidly strips his narrative of all ornamental and illustrative detail may suppose he is giving the pupil the very pith and marrow of history: he is, in fact, robbing the story not only of all its interest, but of all its value. For history is only worth studying in so far as it vivifies the past, lights up the dim spaces of the bygone world and fills them with figures which move and feel and live. That Henry VIII was six times wedded is of small importance to us, even though we know the names and the parentage of the ladies: what is vital is that we should have a clear conception what manner of man he was."

If such a system of epitomizing and thus squeezing the life out of history is to be rejected in second-

ary schools, still more does it deserve to be utterly excluded from the more elementary classes of the common school. Instead of such an epitome we are in pressing need of a carefully selected series of suitable topics for children for a Course of Study in history. In the chapter on the Course of Study we have attempted to make such a selection. Such topics when once chosen should receive a full, fruitful, and instructive treatment.

In studying the colonial period of American history in sixth grade, as outlined in the course of study, it is a question whether we are not entering upon some subjects too difficult for sixth-grade pupils. The charters granted by European states, the royal prerogatives; the taxing power of Parliament, navigation laws, the gradual growth of representative governing bodies in the colonies and the religious disputes will seem to many too difficult for children of this grade. Against these objections we may place the following considerations: —

1. In the earliest settlement of colonies we have the simplest possible economic, social, and governmental conditions. The origins of no European state can be traced back to such simple, well-known conditions as those of Plymouth, Jamestown, and other colonies. Life was rude and plain, and everything sprang from the simplest beginnings. Even the religious life, inherited through centuries from

Europe, was simple and direct in its manifestations and results.

2. The beginnings of government and the simple transition from pure democracy to a representative system can be seen as nowhere else. The powerful tendency toward self-government through colonial assemblies, and in opposition to the tyranny of royal governors, can be easily understood.

3. The spirit and occupations of the people in fishing, agriculture, lumbering, and ship-building are such as children can understand.

4. The dramatic incidents of Indian war and religious persecution present no special difficulty.

5. Colonial history should be treated largely as a series of colonial biographies. Interest should centre in such men as William Penn, Benjamin Franklin, Miles Standish, John Winthrop, Roger Williams, Eliot, Davenport, Andros, Berkeley, Bacon, Washington, Montcalm, and others. A few leading biographies in each colony treated with interesting fulness will serve as strong types to bring out the aims and character of the people.

6. During the colonial period we are collecting data in matters of government and social history, whose general and deeper meaning will be better seen when we come to survey the causes of the Revolution in the seventh grade. When we reach this point, about the middle of the seventh grade, we can well afford to go back and trace up in succession

the steps in the development of free government in the colonies. This will be preceded also in the seventh grade by a study of the Puritan revolution in England.

The big units in the colonial period should be selected with much care and each should be presented in a large, comprehensive, and luminous description. We purpose a full, rich treatment of each of the four principal colonies, thus finding plenty of time for descriptions and biographical detail. A strong, Macaulay-like description of a few striking episodes in the leading colonies will produce a much keener interest and a stronger insight into our early history than the foolish effort to stretch our drag-net over all the colonies and gather in every important event. We must experience the lives and struggles of the colonists in the midst of sickness, danger, and rough hardship, in the severe straits of famine and Indian outrage, or governmental restraint and cruelty, so as to feel as they felt, and to appreciate their impulses and surroundings. As each settlement grows into the proportions of a state, and its population spreads over a larger territory, with increasing complexity of interests, the careful selection of a few prominent topics requires still greater wisdom and leads to the most important results in teaching.

In the fourth and fifth grade biographies have formed the natural units of instruction, and in the sixth grade also some of these biographies should be

given a very prominent place. Other large topics are furnished by the life of the common people, such as the family customs, the religious habits, and their system of labor. The plan of government as it developed itself in each colony is always an important topic. A few of the chief campaigns, especially of the French and Indian War, may be selected as units of study.

First in regard to the use of the biographies. The lives of John Winthrop in Boston, of Roger Williams and William Penn, are worthy of a descriptive treatment as a means of graphic and almost dramatic presentation of colonial happenings. The spirit of these men, and of the colonies which they led, can never be understood by children from short, condensed sketches. It is the full account of the deeds, purposes, and trials which can make history real. Later on, the lives of Sir Henry Vane, Cotton Mather, Governor Berkeley, Sir Edmund Andros, and Benjamin Franklin deserve the same sort of narrative and descriptive account.

A somewhat complete story of the life of Benjamin Franklin may accompany the latter part of this epoch. Much of his autobiography would serve this purpose. As a public man, and in his personal affairs even, his life is of importance to Pennsylvania and Massachusetts and, as a colonial agent, to nearly all the colonies. As a statesman he was wide awake to public interests and led the way to a closer union

of all the colonies. He was deeply interested in practical schemes for improving the conditions of life, inventing stoves and street lamps, encouraging schools and the popular spread of knowledge. He was plain, temperate, and frugal in his style of living, and in very many respects the story of his life is suitable for children to study. His plain sense and humor, his economy and simplicity, his energy and public spirit are excellent, and arouse children to self-improvement and knowledge. Many parts of his autobiography may be read by sixth-grade children and discussed by the teacher in the class. Passages also from "Poor Richard's Almanac" are quaint and noteworthy. His own descriptions of journeys, friends and acquaintances, both in the colonies and in England, and his modes of self-improvement are of great educative value.

Other representative leaders in colonial history may furnish a spirited introduction to the vigorous young life of these early American communities. Children of this grade are not yet old enough to understand or interest themselves much in the development of purely political and social organizations. It is well to keep to the shady, inviting biographical walks where personal actions and interests serve to illustrate the life of communities. It is safer to let the panorama of history unroll itself in a few great typical persons, with occasional strong glimpses of the underlying forces which

are formulating themselves into the institutions of freedom.

In working up to a clear view of the political and other ideas that were hammered out into consistency and strength during the colonial period, we should keep in sight a strong foreground of dramatic incident and of biographical detail. These furnish the concrete materials behind which children can detect and trace up the moving causes. It is easier to approach large political and social affairs through the lives of individuals than to generalize about institutions and modes of life. The lives of such men as Bradford, Standish, Stuyvesant, Oglethorpe, King Philip, Otis, Frontenac, Sir William Johnson, Wolfe, and Montcalm stand out clearly at important crises and exemplify the chief influences at work.

Leading Topics from the Life of the Common People

Back of the lives of conspicuous leaders such as we have mentioned is the life and struggle of the common people. In some if not in all the colonies the vigorous, independent folk-life was more powerful in determining the course of events than the work of their strongest leaders. Especially in the English colonies was this influence of the stout yeomanry manifest. The French and Spanish had leaders of a marvellous personal force and energy, but the rank and file were not of the nation-building

material as compared with the English. In the history of the early settlements the strength of character of the common man is strongly in evidence. As they put themselves to building houses in the wilderness, in like manner they raised the framework of states and governments. They had a rude struggle to find a footing in the simple industries of lumbering, farming, and fishing along the New England coast or in the tide-water region of Virginia.

Moreover, this life of the common folk presents striking phases which are interesting to children. We may mention their houses and home life, their fireside industries, the gathering of the family about the great fireplaces, their sober lives and family worship, their antique furniture and dress, and even their efforts at Puritan amusements. Their meeting-houses and long sermons in cold churches, their rigorous Sunday supervision of boys, and their love of theology will always stand forth as remarkable traits of character. They were Puritans, even to the extent of persecution and outlawry of those who did not agree with them.

Other large topics rooted in the life of the common people are the different systems of labor in the colonies, including the indentured servants, slavery and the patroon system, the contrasted modes of farming, north and south, the aristocracies of New England and Virginia, the toilsome modes of travel by water and on land, the backwoods trapping, hunt-

ing, and scouting, the adventurous fishing and whaling voyages, the transactions of town meetings and colonial assemblies. Children should come into hand-to-hand, close quarters with these people by means of fine descriptions, personal narratives, historical pictures, and eye-witness testimonies, such as are now furnished abundantly in the best source materials.

In describing the people in the different colonies there is discovered a picturesque variety in manner of life, as based upon great differences in language, religion, and fatherland. The races which settled America were of many strongly contrasted types. The mirth-loving French are very sharply contrasted with the sober New England Puritans. The Dutch greatly disliked the shrewd, inquisitive Yankees. The Quakers were a remarkably peculiar people, and the gentry of the southern colonies had different tastes and sentiments from all the others. The Swedes, the Scotch and Irish, and the Germans formed also strong contingents, with very pronounced peculiarities, in several different colonies. The Indians and negroes added a still more marked contrast to the classes named above.

Incidentally, the countries of Europe, Africa, and America, from which these different races sprung, are brought into interesting review. The variety of races, creeds, and nationalities among the early settlers of America gives an astonishing diversity to

early American history, for at that time each of these diverse classes retained its peculiarities unmodified by the others. In the treatment of each colonial type a very interesting and vivid picture of racial character and customs, very attractive to children, may be drawn, and later on the comparing and contrasting of these classes with one another will prove a lively and intelligent source of interest. We have hardly been accustomed to enter deeply enough into these matters in our school work to get the rich and instructive lessons which they contain for the young. The failure of our epitomized history text-books to bring out these striking race diversities, these picturesque peculiarities of different peoples in the early colonies, shows clearly how they have failed to grasp the significant power of the concrete side of history instruction. Some writers have claimed that the exclusive use of American history in our common schools would make children narrow and provincial. While we believe that our own histories should be much enriched by that of European countries, we still hold that these early narratives contain such a variety of strong provincialisms that it amounts almost to a cosmopolitan breadth. But in order to understand these lessons, children must be allowed to form brightly colored concrete pictures of the peculiar modes of life found in the different colonies.

We have already discussed the importance of biography, which is also an excellent means of bring-

ing out many details of private life among the people. McMaster, and other historians, have set up as their paramount aim this vivid description of life among the people. By passages from such books, teachers and children may refresh their imaginations with full and adequate descriptions of the activities, amusements, holidays, and family life of the masses.

A special means of giving greater intensity and insight into historical events is the source material. This comes directly from eye-witnesses and contemporaries of the events described. Of late it has been carefully collected and brought within the reach of teachers and school libraries. It is certainly a very select means of reviving the history of our fathers and giving it a substantial reality. It is now generally admitted that these quaint and picturesque descriptions by eye-witnesses are incomparably strong in their power to revive the past. Hart says: "As a record, sources are the basis of history, but not mere raw material like the herbaria of the botanist, or the chemicals of a laboratory, stuffs to be destroyed in discovering their nature; as utterances of men living when they were made, they have in them the breath of human life; history is the biology of human conduct. Nobody can settle any historical question without an appeal to the sources, or without taking into account the character of the actors in history." Hart's four volumes of carefully selected and arranged sources, touching every important period

and topic of our history, give the most striking and overwhelming proofs of the value of these source materials in vivifying the past. By way of illustration a few sentences will be given from Vol. II, p. 65, "Pennsylvania, the Poor Man's Paradise." "I must say, even the Present Encouragements are very great and inviting, for Poor People (both Men and Women) of all kinds, can here get three times the Wages for their Labour they can in England or Wales.

"I shall instance in a few, which may serve; nay, and will hold in all the rest. The first was a Black-Smith, (my next Neighbour) who himself and one Negro Man he had, got Fifty Shillings in one Day, by working up a Hundred Pound Weight of Iron, which at Six Pence per Pound (and that is the common Price in that Country) amounts to that Summ.

"Before I end this Paragraph, I shall add another Reason why Womens Wages are so exorbitant; they are not yet very numerous, which makes them stand upon high Terms for their several Services, in Sempstering, Washing, Spinning, Knitting, Sewing, and all the other parts of their Imployments; for they have for Spinning either Worsted or Linen, Two Shillings a Pound, and commonly for Knitting a very Course pair of Yarn Stockings, they have half a Crown a pair; moreover they are usually Marry'd before they are Twenty Years of Age, and when once in that Noose, are for the most part a little uneasie, and make their Husbands so too, till they procure

them a Maid Servant to bear the burden of the Work, as also in some measure to wait on them too."

These source materials are short and simple, very amusing and entertaining to the children, and provide just those brilliant side-lights which no text-book or single author can supply. Hart says again: "But there are two sides to history, the outward events in their succession, with which secondary historians alone can deal, and the inner spirit which is revealed only by the sources. If we could not know both things it would be better to know how Mary Dyer justified herself for being a Quakeress, than how her trial was carried on. The source, therefore, throws an inner light upon events; secondary writers may go over them, collate them, compare them, sometimes supplement them, but can never supersede them.

"As for entertainment the narratives of discovery are the Arabian Nights of history for their marvels and adventures."

Source materials are not designed to make children scientific investigators and critics of sources, like a post-graduate in a University seminary. They may, however, accustom a child to consult books and authorities outside of his text. The four volumes of source material mentioned above consist of simple, short selections which both teacher and pupils can use without any loss of time upon irrelevant material.

The Chronological and Causal Sequence

In following out the story of a colony like Pennsylvania or Virginia a child may discover a steady growth; causes which he understands move on to definite results. The early conditions in the colonies are so simple, so concretely manifest, that he can see the inevitableness of certain results, such as the peculiar mode of plantation life in Virginia, or the small farms, lumbering, and fisheries of New England. Nothing is able to stir up more enthusiasm in a class and to throw the children more upon their own thinking power than a rich supply of suitable facts from which they may search out the causes and results of important events. By limiting our study to a very few of the salient topics in colonial history it is possible to go deeper into those ground-connections between the facts. An event like the Albany Congress of 1754 can be fully described, its many-sided relations to the colonies and to England examined, and Franklin's wisdom in his plan of union brought to light. The intelligent tracing out of these relations ties up the facts in such a firm association that a clear understanding and a retentive remembrance are assured. As examples worthy of such cause-and-effect study we may mention the navigation acts and commercial restrictions upon the trade of the colonists, the position and influence of

the Five Nations in New York, Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia, and the final defeat of the French in 1760. Not many topics can be handled in such a richly instructive manner. As in agriculture, the more intense the cultivation, the less extensive is the area cultivated. There is a wide difference between merely naming causes and assuming the importance of events on the one side, and tracing up causes and finding out why events are important on the other.

The work of the sixth grade is essentially to observe the growth of small and weak settlements into strong and vigorous commonwealths with waxing commercial, economic, and political interests. Especially has it been customary to emphasize the political history of these colonies. But government is an abstract subject for children in the sixth grade, and to be of interest and value to them it must be dealt with in a very practical and illustrative manner. In New England, beginning with the Pilgrims at Plymouth, it is easy to see how a purely democratic rule in the town meeting was natural and appropriate in providing for the affairs of common interest. Later, as the settlements spread out over the adjacent country, a representative body of men was naturally selected to consult on public questions, and finally the General Court of Massachusetts was the inevitable outgrowth of this representative system. As this popular self-government, expressing the will of

the people, grew up gradually out of the conditions of life it acquired a powerful hold on the people's affections. In fact, it was part of their life and the very safeguard of their rights. The more their royal governors antagonized this direct product of the people's will, the more the affections of the latter were set upon it. State sovereignty was the strongest political idea. It is well for the children to feel keenly the attachment of the Puritan for his New England life, town meeting, church, and legislature. It is well to measure his confidence in his own local government and the causes for it.

The independent, self-reliant spirit of the Americans in the northern, middle, and southern colonies should be seen in its unvarnished strength as prominently brought out in the dealings with royal governors, with kings and parliaments, as well as in the laborious and dangerous work of exploration, settlement, and Indian conflict. So simple is the environment of the early colonies that sixth-grade children, we think, in approaching the subject on the line of concrete illustration, can appreciate the temper of the people, and follow with interest their methods of self-government and the educative process by which they gradually trained themselves toward freedom and independence. The acts and characters of royal governors are closely examined, as showing wisdom and prudence or tyranny and selfishness. The prerogatives assumed by royal governors and the rights

asserted by the people kept the two parties in almost constant conflict, and gave a vigorous schooling in practical politics. The persons involved and the principles at stake in this struggle are in themselves very interesting. Such study is an excellent training for young Americans because of its direct moral example and warning and as a preparation for the exercise of political rights in later years.

In this connection it is of great value to draw illustrations familiar to the children from local, state, and national politics of the present time. This is one of the best modes of teaching practical civics. The city or town council with examples of its law-making power, the assessment and collection of local taxes, the election of local officers, magistrates, and members of the legislature, should be brought into comparison with similar acts in colonial life.

As the leading colonies are studied, one after another, the comparison of the political life, struggles, and constitutions of the one under discussion with those previously studied is valuable because it leads to striking discoveries and conclusions. The pronounced differences between royal, charter, and proprietary control are noticeable. But in spite of the striking differences in the form of government, in race, religion, industrial and social life, it is found that the colonies developed curiously similar tendencies toward independent self-government. Everywhere they showed the same self-reliance, the same

sturdy, manly independence, and the same opposition to the encroachments of authority.

The study of four or five leading colonies, one after another, furnishes an uncommonly good test of the plan of *reviews by comparison.* Each of these colonies had for many years a distinct, independent development. Each was surrounded by a wild wilderness, beset by savages, and each was under the necessity of defending and maintaining itself by its own self-reliant efforts. A comparison of the vicissitudes through which the Virginia settlements passed, with those of Massachusetts, would bring out a remarkable number of striking incidents. At the same time, the strong contrast in the labor system, religion, form of local government, and social character of the colonists lends a special interest and force to these comparisons. Each time the history of a colony is compared with another, a very thoughtful review is made of the affairs of both. But each review of this sort has more of new thought and acquisition than of mere repetition of the facts learned. For purposes of thorough mastery no better plan could be devised than such comparative reviews. At the same time the dead and formal repetition so often found in the review work is reduced to a minimum.

Moreover, it is a first-class illustration of that inductive method of teaching, now so much recommended, by which the concrete individual illustrations are steadily gathered, compared, and organized.

Every comparison of one colonial history with another leads to more general conclusions than any single history can supply, and by the time we have passed over the history of the leading colonies by successive comparisons, we have arrived at those general conclusions which the history of the colonies in America teaches.

Such a study also brings children into close touch with the natural development of American ideas; for as the colonies grew and came into closer touch and association with one another, they were forced to compare themselves with one another, unite their interests and combine their forces along the line of these very conclusions. The strength of the attachment which each colony felt for its local institutions and form of government was for many years a powerful obstruction to a closer union of the colonies, but a broader sympathy and allegiance was, by the force of circumstances, more and more demanded of them. Slowly and experimentally they discovered the necessity, justice, and wisdom of inter-colonial interest and helpfulness. The larger relations of the colonies to the Indians, to the French, and to the government of England, lead up incessantly to the idea of political life and patriotism in a broader sense. By such comparisons and inductions as we have indicated, it is easy to trace the growth of this sentiment through the colonial period.

The natural robust expansion of the colonies made

union a necessity, but at certain periods of relaxation they seemed to grow sharply antagonistic to each other. In all our later epochs these two forces, centripetal and centrifugal, have been formative in their influence on our politics. Later on, our constitution is found to be an instrument to put in balance these two powerful tendencies of our history.

One effect of this scheme of comparisons between colonies by which the striking points of resemblance and difference are mastered is to make unnecessary a second full treatment of the same topics. By this plan each succeeding year leads on to new and later historical fields. The customary school course in history has required the children to pass over the same events several times, to review each year the same epochs previously studied, enlarging upon them according to the supposed capacity of the children. A brief retrospect upon our course as thus far explained shows the selection of a few topics each year which the children can really appreciate. These are to be enriched and vitalized with such concrete illustrations as will make them thoroughly interesting and intelligible. By frequent comparisons with similar topics previously studied, more general conclusions involved in this subject-matter are inductively worked out by children and teacher. In the sixth grade we wish to do our duty by the colonial period, so that the children will not need to return a second time to a like exhaustive study of the same topics, but may

pass on to new and important topics in our later history.

There is also, in addition to the comparisons just discussed, another important phase of review work of the greatest value. Some of the topics later studied in seventh and eighth grades have a striking resemblance to those treated in the sixth, and admit of the most interesting and profitable comparisons. In framing the federal Constitution various examples furnished by the earlier colonial governments became the models for the division into executive, legislative, and judicial departments. Some of the campaigns of the Revolution are projected along the Hudson and Lake Champlain, as in the French and Indian wars. The critical period before the adoption of the Constitution gives a striking exhibition of the weaknesses which grew out of the colonial conditions preceding the Revolution. This comparison of later epochs in seventh and eighth grades with those previously studied in the sixth grade is seen to be valuable in throwing a flood of light upon the meaning of events, both earlier and later.

Of equal value is the tracing back of the causal connection of events from our earlier to our later history. Almost every important topic treated in seventh and eighth grades can be understood only by carefully reviewing the foundations of our history in colonial times. Slavery struck its roots deep during this early period, and when the Constitution was

adopted found full recognition in that instrument. State sovereignty got such a powerful recognition in our federal compact that it did not discover until 1861 that it was not paramount. But we need not multiply illustrations. The powerful causal sequence which binds all of our later history to the earlier should give to teachers, even in the common schools, more than a hint as to the true method of teaching our history. A child should be taught to grow up with our history, and, by tracing back the chief causes, keep in his mind the determining forces which shape later events. But that our schools have not done this is due to the prevalent conviction that history is merely a memorizing of chief events by reiteration, not by thoughtful connection and sequence, not by comparative reviews.

In all later studies children should be allowed to trace back the causes, to return again and again to these familiar fields of former study, and to pick up the threads of connection between past and present. They will thus get new light and sift out a stronger meaning from old events. But the main work of each year will be centred upon a new, a later theme. It is well worth our effort to try to select for each grade historical periods which the children can fairly understand, and to lead them on each succeeding year into a new and instructive field, somewhat more complex but still within their reasonable grasp.

The question will again obtrude itself whether

children of the sixth grade are capable of the kind of study by comparison and causal sequence which we have supposed. It was suggested once before that children are quite capable of reasoning when they possess sufficient concrete knowledge and experience, and for this we have persistently provided by gathering about each topic abundant material of fact, illustration, biography, adventure, and everyday life. In our usual modes of teaching we have hardly given the children a fair chance to show what reasoning power they possess. We have assumed rather that they had little or nothing of this reasoning power, but that their memories were quick and retentive of the brief formulated statements and general conclusions of the text-books. To grasp the meaning of these epitomized statements presupposes, however, a much greater maturity of understanding in children than we have asked, for it assumes their ability to understand important conclusions and inferences without the data upon which they are based.

In the later part of the sixth-grade work, in dealing with topics of general interest to all the colonies, such as the Indian wars, the struggle of European powers for supremacy in America, and the closer union among the colonies themselves for meeting these conditions, we have to do with larger enterprises which point the way to those greater developments which come thronging upon us in the seventh grade. The story of the conflict between France and the

English-Americans for control in North America is the most dramatic phase of this period. The episode of the great struggle between the French and the Five Nations is preliminary to this, and of much value as exhibiting the Indians at their greatest strength. Children of the sixth grade can respond with a lively intelligence to the campaigns of the last French and Indian War. When Pitt finally assumed control, and Wolfe and Montcalm enter upon that energetic contest, we have an exhibition of high spirit and enterprise on both sides in an inevitable contest whose results determined the whole trend of our later history.

All through the studies of the sixth grade the intimate and close dependence of our history upon that of England and other European lands advises us of the necessity of better understanding the purposes of those countries and the reasons for their constant and controlling interference in American affairs. It is necessary also to go a little deeper into a review of the causes of emigration from those countries, the religious persecutions and desire for colonial empire which combined in settling America.

The close dependence of the early settlements and of the later colonies upon royal grants and royal authority make it advisable to trace back the causes of settlement to Europe, and to get as definite notions as possible of the peoples and countries from which the colonists came. The study of the colonial period

should therefore to a considerable degree be a study of England, Holland, Sweden, France, Scotland, and Ireland, and of the political and religious conditions in those countries, at least of those which led directly to the emigrations. In our plan the seventh-grade geography is devoted to the study of Europe. In this work the character, occupations, and governments of European states will receive a still more definite treatment. Thus geography and history may work together. Incidentally we acquire in these ways a considerable knowledge of European courts, princes, and political policies, and also much knowledge of the ideas, customs, and conditions of the common people from whose midst the emigrants came.

In studying the last great conflict between the French and English for colonial empire, we have an excellent opportunity to review broadly the whole course of colonial settlement by these two nations, to contrast the characters of the French and the English in America, and to get a clearer understanding of the quality of the English colonists as a whole. This is a very good illustration to show how the long series of historical facts summarize themselves in a single event. In this connection let the teacher read Burke's oration on Conciliation with the American Colonies, which gives a remarkably lifelike picture of the people in the thirteen states.

In the sixth grade children should begin to acquire

ability in using books, in collecting and arranging facts on a given topic. Certain books can be put into their hands to be studied as texts, others are rather to be used as references. The teacher in assigning the lesson should give explicit directions how to use books of reference. To assign historical topics without definite instruction as to books and particular parts of books required is a misuse of children's time. It is very important to learn how to use books, as well as to get their contents. The discussion of previously assigned topics in the class may be made of such a character as to bring the various facts and judgments into proper relation. It is here that causal connections should be seen, the proper sequence worked out, and the relative importance of events judged. There are also many places in the sixth grade where the teacher, from a fuller knowledge and a riper experience, can afford to present a topic in clear and vivid form, closing with a restatement of it from the children.

J. E. Lloyd says: "It is the business of the teacher, by his vigorous and individual treatment of the subject, to conquer that fatal tendency to routine which is the ruin of history teaching. For this reason I hold that he should open up each topic himself, should introduce the pupil to it, pointing out, first its salient features, and afterwards its difficulties: the scholar should not be left to plough what is for him virgin soil without assistance. The

inclination to mechanical work may be with advantage corrected by teaching through the eye as well as the ear: the blackboard should be brought into constant requisition for illustrative diagrams: the geography incident to the history lesson should be elucidated with the aid of wall maps, both flat and moulded to represent physical features: photographs, prints, coins, and archæological relics from the school museum should be brought into use.

"But, while much is required of the teacher, it is equally necessary that the pupil should not be merely receptive. The history lesson should not be, what I have known the science lesson to be in some cases, an entertainment kindly provided by the teacher, which relieved the tedium of severer studies, and only asked from the pupil that he should act as spectator. There should be much questioning, the power of making valid comparisons should be developed, and the scholar should be taught to give clear and accurate expression to his opinions."

We are justified at this juncture in insisting upon the teacher's deeper knowledge of the colonial period. He should have read a number of books which the children could not be expected to use. The large secondary histories should be in part, at least, familiar to him. The biographies of the Statesmen's series, the Commonwealth series of State histories, Parkman's narratives of the French régime, John Fiske's books on colonial history, are

exceedingly interesting and inspiring to a teacher. They cannot all be read at once, but from time to time, and in leisure hours, these intensely interesting and valuable books will be found to greatly stimulate a teacher without burdening him. The knowledge thus acquired is, of course, a reserve fund to be drawn upon, here and there, as occasion may require; not a collective mass of learning with which to flood the children and waste their time.

An examination of the American historical literature, prescribed in the reading of the sixth grade, will show that the regular reading exercises may contribute much to the enlargement and enrichment of the history studies. "The Courtship of Miles Standish," "Grandfather's Chair," "The Gentle Boy," "Giles Corey," Hawthorne's "Biographical Stories," "The Sketch Book," and the "Autobiography of Franklin" deal directly with colonial life, and several of the books of history story do the same. This is one of the best illustrations we can have of the powerful reënforcement of history through classic readings.

The readings derived from other European countries give a still further enlargement to historical knowledge. A very large proportion of the history that comes to the children of the common school must come to them through these supplementary and voluntary readings.

The course of study in history can never be loaded

up with any very large amount of required work along these historical lines. A few chief topics can be treated in an interesting way, and the children may be encouraged to use the school library and to employ their own leisure hours at home in extending and enriching their knowledge of history and literature.

Many of the finest literary products appropriate to school children have, fortunately, this marked historical interest and character, and the taste for this kind of good reading should be the goal of the teacher's efforts with many children. The selections of historical literature in this course of study form only a part of the great body of good literature with which children should become acquainted during their school years.

The chapters containing the Course of Study and the List of Books arranged according to grades should be consulted to see how abundant and excellent are the historical and classical readings which may directly supplement and strengthen the classroom work.

Many children of good capacity and of a natural turn toward this class of readings will find in them a means of intellectual and social expansion and a capital resource for leisure hours.

CHAPTER V

HISTORY IN THE SEVENTH GRADE

At the beginning of the seventh grade three large topics of European history are treated. The first of the three terms of the year can be profitably given to these topics: The Reformation, the Puritan revolution in England, and the French monarchy — large and difficult topics to deal with in the seventh grade.

In dealing with the Reformation there is danger of awakening religious controversies. And yet the Reformation has powerfully influenced the whole of modern history, and especially those parts of it which led to the settlement of America. The conflict between Luther and Rome, and later between Protestant and Catholic nations, should be handled in an unpartisan manner. The better purposes and tendencies of both parties to the conflict should be emphasized, and the weaknesses on both sides exposed with a fair but charitable spirit. The main purpose is to get an interesting view of a few men like Luther, Leo X, Charles V, Loyola, Gustavus Adolphus, and Henry VIII.

It is quite possible that in many schools the Refor-

mation cannot yet be treated as an historical topic, in a fair-minded way, and will have to be omitted.

The Puritan development and revolution in England produced such a profound and determining influence in America that it needs to be understood by Americans, more perhaps than any other part of English history. It may be fairly questioned whether seventh-grade children can grasp enough of its real meaning to get out of it a culture value. But, assuming that they can, it is a very interesting problem to inquire how they can best approach it. Usually it has been supposed that a few lessons should be given to the Puritan revolution as a preparation and means of appreciating the great Puritan exodus from England to America in the first half of the seventeenth century; the chronological and causal sequence which is usually followed in history would also suggest this order. But it has been often observed by thinkers that the pedagogical order is the reverse of the logical and causal. Instead of studying English Puritanism as an approach to the better understanding of American Puritanism, it may be better to begin at home with a study of American Puritans as a means of better understanding English Puritans. In fact, the pedagogical argument is very strong in favor of the latter procedure. American Puritanism is not only much nearer home to an American child, being a very prominent part of our own life and history, but it is very much

simpler than English Puritanism. It is not difficult for a child to understand the life of the Puritans in the small settlements at Plymouth and Boston. In England the surrounding conditions are tenfold more complex. There are kings and lords and parliaments, and all sorts of political, social, and religious controversies. The striking traits of the Puritans stand out in the New England settlements with an unmistakable clearness and simplicity dominating the whole life. If a person wished to spell out the meaning of Puritanism in England, he would find the alphabet of it in New England. This alphabet the children have learned in the sixth grade, and have traced out further its results in colonial history with its spirit of self-government in political and religious affairs. With this concrete, and what might be called experimental, knowledge of Puritanism in America on a small scale, the child will be the better qualified to interpret the men and forces at work during the Puritan revolution in England.

The same thing is true with regard to the French. In the study of French explorers, priests, and settlers in Canada and along the Great Lakes, children have a much better chance to understand French character than they could have by studying French history in France itself, with its complexities of government and society. French life in America was simple and unconstrained, and gave unmistakable proof of its natural bent. After studying the French colonists

in America, therefore, we can the better appreciate the French in their old home.

For the seventh grade we select in American history the period from the close of the last French and Indian War to the adoption of the Constitution. The twenty-six years from 1763 to 1789 constitute an epoch of surprising interest in American history. Much time and attention have always been paid to the Revolution, but we shall wish to give an equal attention to a review of near and remoter causes which led up to the Revolution, and to those swift-following results which led on to the adoption of the Constitution.

The proper treatment of this period, like that of all other important periods of American history, cannot be accomplished in a compendious text-book designed to cover in one or in two years the whole history of our country from the time of Columbus to the present. Not even a narrative and biographical history, supported by good maps and pictures, though written in the best style of a master, can accomplish this result in one or two years. To produce the right effect, American history should be distributed through intermediate and grammar grades so that a child can grow up with it. The purpose of this study is not fulfilled by gaining a barren mastery of many facts. The lessons of life taught by our history should be keenly felt. The motives and impulses of men in the midst of stirring struggles should be appreciated.

The limited period which we have selected for the seventh grade has the elements of greatness in it, a righteous cause and a mighty spirit of achievement, leaders of such integrity, forethought, and spirit as the world has scarcely seen excelled. Why should we hurry children past these events as an express train sweeps by mile-posts and stations. The passengers see the landscapes whirl by, and catch the name of an occasional station. This is not history nor education in any true sense. On the contrary, we can afford to stop and live among the people of a hundred and thirty years ago, till we know their surroundings and catch their spirit. We should sit down by them at the fireside or in the camp, hear them argue and plead in the courts or the legislature, and travel with them on long distances over bad roads.

In two ways we may gain time for the right study of this epoch. First by limiting our attention during a school year to such a brief period which, however, is well suited to instruct and attract seventh-grade pupils. Second, by selecting only a few of the more important and typical phases and events of even this short period for elaborate examination and detailed study. The whole purpose is to get deep into the understanding and spirit of our history rather than to spread out superficially over its whole area. We shall select a few of the chief movements and campaigns of the Revolution, and enter into a full narra-

tive of the events clustering around these centres. The narrative should be enriched with the biographical facts and with the scenery which can throw these pivotal events into a strong light. In the same way two or three of the chief stages leading up to the adoption of the Constitution will be travelled over. By selecting a few central topics and by gathering full descriptive materials upon them, we shall have more fruitful results than by memorizing all the important and many unimportant events.

Teachers are a little slow to recognize the advantage of discussing a few important topics with an interesting wealth of detail. John Fiske, in his series of books on American history, has given to teachers a brilliant illustration of the value of this method. Fiske had a remarkable faculty for throwing the few essential problems of history into prominence, and for clothing them in the garment of attractiveness and power. By focussing his illustrations and descriptions upon a chosen few ideas and events he gave them a powerful and attractive illumination. His two works on the American Revolution (two volumes) and the "Critical Period of American History" (the very period we are now discussing) are models of this style of historical presentation. They are not thick, cumbersome books, to frighten a teacher with, but transparently simple and luminous, with interesting illustration of chief topics. They are hardly the books for children of this grade,

and yet they are an armory from which the teacher may equip himself with the fittest knowledge resources of a skilful instructor. Fiske's text-book for grammar grades is nowhere nearly so good, because it is an attempt to condense American history for children — an impossible undertaking.

Another excellent book to open the eyes of teachers to the value of the few essentials treated in a lively manner, is Judson's "The Growth of the American Nation." This is an attempt to leave out as many of the so-called important facts of our history as possible, in order to get the really important events and persons into striking profile before the eye.

Mace's excellent book, "Method in History," is a searching inquiry into the dominant and essential things in American history. It will surely lead the teacher out of the chaos of particular and unorganized facts accumulated in text-books to those bold headlands from which he can get, from time to time, a broad and simple survey of the stream of history; as when one stands on the high projecting front of Lookout Mountain, one may gain a picturesque and sweeping survey of the course of the Tennessee River, with its environing mountain ridges.

Let the teacher beware, however, of making Mace's book a text for high school or Normal school students. It is, in fact, a condensed body of generalizations, strong and nourishing meat for those already possessing a large store of clear knowledge of Ameri-

can history, but sawdust and ashes to young people innocent of the facts of history.

In order to bring out the point for which we are contending, with unmistakable clearness, we will say that the writer of a text-book in history for the common school, and also the teacher who uses it, needs to be both a philosopher and a poet; (1) philosopher enough to sift out the few great centralizing ideas of history; (2) poet enough to clothe each of these ideas with the rich garniture of concrete imagery, simple illustration, and human feeling; what is commonly called the detail and coloring of the picture.

The first great topic for study consists in a resurvey of the historical causes leading up to the American Revolution. This furnishes an excellent standpoint from which to view, first, the history of the English colonies in America, and secondly, the Puritan revolution in England which gave such a powerful impulse to the colonization of America.

A few of the leading points we will pass in review. The religious persecutions in Europe, which led to the settlement of New England and the middle colonies, developed in these emigrants a very powerful spirit of freedom and independence. During the early years of their settlement also they were left alone to take care of themselves to such an extent that they developed a pronounced democratic spirit and a convincing experience in self-government. The local governing bodies created by them levied

taxes upon them and became more and more the chief means of maintaining the popular rights. On the other hand, their frequent quarrels with the royal governors developed a successful resistance to obnoxious laws and rulers. Almost every one of the colonies had experience of the conflict of their own representatives with tyrannical governors. As the colonies grew in importance and their commerce became extensive, the trade restrictions imposed upon them by England in the form of navigation laws were vexatious and injurious. A vigorous system of smuggling was carried on by the colonial sailors, merchants, and shipowners, in their trade with the West Indies and with other countries. In his speech on conciliation with America, Burke gives a vivid and enthusiastic description of the bold sailors and sea captains engaged in the whale fisheries.

From the very beginning of the settlements the spirit of self-reliance was cultivated in the most rigorous fashion in defending themselves against the severities of a harsh climate, and the hostility of fierce tribes of Indians. Later on, during the various French and Indian wars, they not only cultivated the military spirit but discovered also the weak points in British soldiers, and the inefficiency of British generals.

The uniform attitude of the British government toward America was shown in a desire to exploit the colonies by turning their commerce and resources

into British trade and revenue. The general tendency in America, on the contrary, was in the direction of a very bold and even reckless assertion of liberty. The teacher who wishes to get a clear and incisive survey of the situation in 1775, should read Burke's "Conciliation with the Colonies." Burke says: "In this character of the Americans, a love of freedom is the predominating feature which marks and distinguishes the whole; and as an ardent is always a jealous affection, your colonies become suspicious, restive, and untractable whenever they see the least attempt to wrest from them by force, or shuffle from them by chicane, what they think the only advantage worth living for. This fierce spirit of liberty is stronger in the English colonies probably than in any other people of the earth, and this from a great variety of powerful causes; which, to understand the true temper of their minds and the direction which this spirit takes, it will not be amiss to lay open somewhat more largely."

The system of taxation imposed by England upon the colonies, of which that on tea was a small remnant, was quite sufficient to kindle this fierce spirit of liberty into opposition.

At the beginning of the seventh grade our course of study provides three topics from European history, one of which, the Puritan revolution in England, furnishes a good opportunity to review that period of English history which has most powerfully influenced

American history. Burke says: "The colonies emigrated from you when this part of your character (the spirit of freedom) was most predominant; and they took this bias and direction the moment they parted from your hands. They are therefore not only devoted to liberty but liberty according to English ideas and English principles." The period referred to here by Burke is that of the Puritan revolution in England. Charles I, in the effort to rule his people and levy taxes without a Parliament, brought on this desperate struggle with his people. There is no doubt but that Charles was making a direct assault upon the common rights of Englishmen by taxing them without their consent, by imprisonment and death without trial, in fact by an arbitrary determination to have his own way without let or hindrance. But under the leadership of such men as Pym and Hampden, and later of Cromwell, this effect of royal tyranny brought on a war which resulted in Charles's own overthrow and death, and the Puritans under Cromwell triumphed. Undoubtedly England was fighting the great battle of the world for free parliamentary government. It will be of much interest to compare the points in controversy with those which rose at the beginning of the American Revolution. The latter was also brought on by a conflict over taxation, and England claimed the right to remove Americans to England for trial. Judson, in "The Growth of the American Nation,"

says: "The colonists were willing, if the king should ask them for aid, to appropriate liberally of their resources for that purpose. But they declared that Parliament had no legal right to tax them at all. Taxation without representation was against the fundamental rights of Englishmen, and as they had no representative in Parliament, it followed that the only legal way to levy taxes was by act of the various colonial legislatures.

"Franklin carried the argument further. He showed that the colonies had all been established in the royal domain under direct charter of the crown, and in no case by act of Parliament. Hence, he declared, the colonies were joined to England only by the crown, as were Jersey, Guernsey, Ireland, and Scotland before the union, and therefore the only legal taxation was by the colonial legislatures on request of the crown."

It has been frequently observed that Washington and the patriots were simply continuing in America the struggle for English rights which Hampden had maintained in England.

In handling the Puritan revolution in England we may also discuss the religious principles of the Puritans during the Commonwealth, and compare them with the Puritans of New England. It is interesting also to observe that Virginia sided with the royalists, partly because of the aristocratic class of English gentry in Virginia, and partly because of the Episco-

pal church tendencies of that colony. Moreover, the general spirit of independence and liberty which manifested itself so boldly in Cromwell's time has a striking resemblance to the free spirit of the Americans in the Revolution.

It will not be far out of the way to assert that in the Revolution the Americans were fighting the world's battle of freedom, and were simply continuing in a more advanced stage the development of the Puritan revolution in England.

If we find time in seventh grade to give an account of the Protestant Reformation in Europe, we shall be able to go back one step further to the fountain and source of religious and political freedom in modern times, to the life and work of Luther.

In approaching the outbreak of the American Revolution, the life of Samuel Adams furnishes an extremely interesting and concrete example of the spirit of American freedom at this time. He was the head and front of every movement for resisting the efforts of England to impose upon the colonies. The teacher at least should read thoroughly Hosmer's "Life of Samuel Adams," which will enable him to live over again that famous series of events which led on to the break with England. It has been said that Boston at this time was the most important city in the world, and that Samuel Adams was far away the leading man in Boston. It is for-

tunate that we have at the entrance-way to the Revolution such a stirring and instructive biography of a man who was himself the chief agent in bringing on the crisis.

In the Revolutionary War itself we desire to pick out a few important events, campaigns, and biographies, for thorough and interesting study.

We have no desire to emphasize the bloody and destructive work of war; but if we study it at all, let us get deep impressions, not mere scratches on the memory. A few fundamental ideas brought out with great distinctness and rooted in a groundwork of well-organized and related facts will be very fruitful in a child's thought and life. The tracing of causal relations is vital to every lesson. The spirit, incentive, and hardihood of the soldiery should be appreciated; also the qualities of the leaders in camp or in congress.

The reform called for in teaching American history is like that already adopted in physics and chemistry for high schools. The old plan was to spend a short term of three months on a systematic outline of all the chief topics of chemistry or physics, barely touching each one. The plan now used in the best schools is to spend three or more terms upon one of these studies, and build up experimentally and inductively with plenty of illustrative examples a solid basis of real knowledge, without much effort at scientific completeness in the whole subject.

In history also we need to extend the instruction over a much longer school period, and enrich it with interesting illustrations; we may make it more real and tangible by tracing and combining causes and by collecting a wealth of appropriate details. We may select for this purpose important central topics whose significance is seen by well-chosen comparison, and by tracing causal relations with the past.

Some such brief outline as the following may serve to indicate the leading topics. The events about Boston till the evacuation, the struggle for New York, the Declaration of Independence, the retreat through New Jersey, Burgoyne's invasion, Washington at Valley Forge, Cornwallis's campaign at the South, the financial condition at the close of the war, the life and character of Washington as shown during the difficult trials of the Revolution.

We are again fortunate in having the life of Washington to serve as a centre of influence and interest in treating the leading topics of the war. Scudder's "Life of Washington," especially that part of it dealing with the Revolution, may serve as an excellent text-book for this period of history. Fiske's "War of Independence" is also one of the best books on this topic. Fiske-Irving's "Life of Washington" is full of concrete and interesting matter. If the teacher can secure a thoughtful study and reading of such books during the year, and by means of choice references and source materials, maps, and plans of

battles, can focus the attention upon the central topics indicated, he will be able to produce serious and absorbing thought upon these problems. The biographies of Washington and Samuel Adams, besides the strong personal interest which they awaken, are valuable also because they represent so well the two prominent colonies, Virginia and Massachusetts, in the character of the Puritan and the Virginia gentleman. Samuel Adams, more than any one else, led Massachusetts into and through this gigantic struggle. Washington was first of all a Virginian in heart and sympathy, but grew into the full stature of an American patriot, who grasped the whole situation and rose to a worthy leadership of the young nation.

One of the best examples of a large historical topic which furnishes a simple unit of thought is Burgoyne's invasion. A full and interesting treatment of this single campaign would bring out in a striking way the advantage of concentration of time and effort upon such a topic. S. A. Drake's monograph of 142 pages, upon this campaign, forms a very good basis for such a study. Two or three weeks spent upon this topic would unearth a great body of intensely interesting material. The war would become a sharp reality. The pride and the high hopes of the British in setting out, the splendid pageant of an English army moving up Lake Champlain, capturing Ticonderoga, with strong hopes of pushing on successfully to New York·

on the other hand, the rousing of the New York and New England yeomanry, the presence and danger of Indian allies, the splendid victory at Bennington, the stratagems on the Mohawk, the great struggle at Saratoga and its results — all these elaborated into their details and seen in their mutual relations, will give a much deeper insight into the spirit of the American people, the hopes of the British, and the character of the Indians, than can ever be secured from an outline history. Such a single campaign, intimately studied, is worth more for patriotism, and for knowledge of war in all its horrors, distresses, and glories than a dozen campaigns epitomized and memorized.

In discussing the financial condition at the close of the Revolutionary War, a short biography of Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution, should be given. A closer examination of this point will bring out one of the most trying difficulties of the Revolutionary conflict, that of supplying the army with food, clothing, and pay. The worthlessness of paper money, and the complete destruction of financial and commercial credit cannot be better explained.[1]

Benjamin Franklin's career in France during the Revolutionary War is also very picturesque, interesting, and important. Children should be already familiar with the character of Franklin in colonial

[1] See Sparks's "The Men who made the Nation." Sketch of Robert Morris.

times, but his life in France, and the masterly personal qualities and diplomacy by which he gradually aided in bringing the French government to side with the Americans, constitute a very interesting story. This narrative should be continued up to the time of the negotiation of the treaty of peace, in 1783. Another biography of great interest to Americans is that of Lafayette; his early life in France, his enthusiasm for the American cause, his escape to this country and service under Washington, his prominence in the French Revolution, his imprisonment, and final visit to this country, make up a very romantic story.

We notice also that one of the European topics for study in the seventh grade is Louis XIV and the French monarchy, — not a detailed study of that difficult period of French history, but some account of the extravagant ostentation, expensive wars, and despotism of the French monarchy; the aristocracy, living in great luxury and splendor in Paris, and the great masses of the people miserably poor. In their previous studies of French people and explorers in Canada, the children have acquired a considerable insight into French character. It is certainly interesting to trace the causes which led a despotic government like that of France to aid a free people like the Americans in securing their independence.

The last great topic in seventh grade deals with that part of our annals which Fiske has called the

"critical period of American history," and which led to the framing and adopting of the Constitution. No more instructive period of our history can be found than that which describes the rivalries which sprang up between the thirteen states as soon as independence was assured. The utter failure of the Articles of Confederation to hold the colonists together, the financial weakness and disgrace of the whole country, and the tendencies toward disunion and anarchy, help us to understand why thoughtful men and patriots became more and more anxious to establish some strong and stable form of government which could command the obedience of all the colonies.

When, finally, the best representative men of the whole country met in convention at Philadelphia, it is very instructive to observe how many divergent and contradictory opinions were brought together. It may be said that in this convention all the most powerful tendencies of American history, with their roots deeply embedded in the past, were represented. The discussions were so inharmonious, and even hostile, that the best men for a long time despaired of reaching any common agreement. When finally the Constitution was worked out and accepted by a majority of the convention, it was found to consist of a series of great compromises.

The study of the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia is the study of one of the most interesting and important events of the world's history. To

what extent children in the seventh grade can comprehend this, depends partly upon the method of treatment. One of the simplest ways of comprehending it is to study somewhat carefully a few of the most influential men in the convention, and get the strong individual point of view of each; for example, Madison, Hamilton, Washington, Franklin.

Another important phase of this study is its close dependency upon the previous history of the country. The experiences of the thirteen colonies with their local governments and with the Articles of Confederation had taught them many great lessons, and the Constitution incorporates many of these features into its own framework.

So far as the children have really understood American history, thus far they will find that the Constitution is a sort of epitome or summing up of the political history of America. The Philadelphia convention offers, therefore, one of the most advantageous mountain peaks, where we can stop and look back over the whole previous history of the country and see the point toward which all leading events have tended. Not that children can take a deep or broad philosophical view of our history. But they can see in the men of the convention the representatives of state sovereignty, and of federal unity, the double representative system, by states and by popular franchise, the division into state and national prerogatives, the double judicial system, the recog-

nition of slavery and the slave power, and the presence of a strong central executive.

The opportunity which the study of the Philadelphia convention offers for a purposeful review of previous American history, furnishes one of the best illustrations of the proper plan of review, namely, not mere shallow and formal repetition of facts previously memorized, but an examination of facts studied before as great causal influences which are focussed at a later important juncture in history, where their true character as historical forces is discerned. Let children find the previous history of the country as registered in the Constitution.

The final ratification of the Constitution by the people of the states, not, however, without memorable struggles, as in New York and Massachusetts, made this great instrument the act of the American people.

The effort to grasp the meaning of this great period of history (1763–1789) by selecting a few salient topics for a somewhat exhaustive study is based upon the conviction that these apparently complex materials of history admit of great *simplification.* Two reasons may be assigned for our belief in this inherent underlying simplicity in historical events. First, the leading topics set up for full study are types, and secondly, the dominant causal idea that lies wrapped up in a series of great events is found to interpret and unify many minor causes which are often mistaken for distinct and separate influences.

First, as to types. The colonists themselves were extremely shrewd in detecting the typical character of events. The little tax on tea was nothing in itself, but it was a perfect type of all taxes levied unjustly by Parliament. In this bagatelle they perceived the whole import and purpose of the Tory government and party in England.

On the other hand, the British government was not mistaken in regarding Samuel Adams and John Hancock as signal types of all the Massachusetts rebels, and if they could once lay hands on them, they would give some examples of punishment which every British subject would perfectly understand. In fact, Adams was such a perfect representative of the New England spirit of this time, that his biography gives the very essence of the whole struggle against England.

In the same way, Burgoyne's campaign, being so typical in character, may serve as the chief military campaign of the war. John Paul Jones is also the one naval hero whose exploits may serve to illustrate the vigor of our sea-fighters.

In Washington the best elements of the American character were so concentrated and almost idealized that Americans have always contemplated with pleasure the reflection of the nation's purpose in his personality.

Second, as to causes. In nearly all the large units of study it is interesting to sift out the fundamental

cause, as, for example, in the causes of the Revolution, chief of all is the assumption by Parliament of the right to tax the colonies. In the deliberations of the Federal Convention the absolute necessity for establishing a government with sovereign power is the preëminent cause.

Professor Mace illustrates this point, the unity of causes, in discussing the causes of the decline of the Confederation.[1]

"1. The Confederation had no executive or judicial department.
"2. Congress could not raise an army.
"3. No power of direct or indirect taxation was given to the Confederation.
"4. Congress had no control over domestic commerce.
"5. Congress could not enforce treaties with other nations.
"6. The Confederation operated on states and not on individuals.
"7. The Articles of Confederation recognized the sovereignty of the state.
"8. Voting in Congress was by states.
"9. The people owed allegiance to the state only.

"The general or fundamental cause may be found, and the others may be interpreted with reference to it. The careful comparison and contrast of the causes listed above will show that the first eight are

[1] "Method in History," Mace, p. 30.

closely related to the ninth cause. By common consent, when the colonists transferred their allegiance from England, they gave it on all domestic concerns primarily to their respective colonial governments. The Continental Congress recognized this relation in creating the Confederation by making the states, in the main, sovereign. Wherever primary allegiance is placed, there sovereignty will reside. This shows that allegiance conditions sovereignty, and that cause seven is the result of cause nine."

A further comparison of each of the causes assigned with cause nine, leads to the same result. A single cause is discovered, by reflection, to be at the bottom of what is usually described as a variety of causes.

Not only does the effort to discover types and fundamental causes by comparing events greatly simplify the complex data of history, but this process disciplines the mind to self-activity and to inductive methods of reasoning.

To put these separate facts before the children and allow them to discover the fundamental unity in the type or in the deeper cause is a superior form of instruction. The two best results of education are thus achieved at the same time, a simple organization of knowledge and the best mental discipline.

It will doubtless be claimed by some that the course which we have here prescribed is wholly beyond the range of seventh-grade pupils. It should be remem-

bered, however, that these very topics are usualiy handled now in the seventh and eighth grades in about one-quarter of the time which it is proposed in our plan to give to them. By dealing with all these subjects concretely, biographically, and by comparative review of similar facts previously studied, by illustrations from the present workings of our laws and Constitution, and by giving sufficient time in each large topic for suitable descriptive and illustrative detail, the more important phases of these great American topics can be well understood by grammar grades.

Children in the seventh grade are well able to get a full profit from the use of such *source material* as is furnished by Hart's "Source Book of American History." There is nothing difficult or complicated in the use of this source-book. The extracts are usually brief and simple, bearing directly on topics treated in the standard text-books, and neither teacher nor pupil need waste any time in finding the appropriate matter. The teacher should be definite and exact in assigning the references. Half a dozen or less copies of the source-book in the library will answer the needs of a dozen pupils.[1]

Hart says source materials "are to act as adjuncts to historical narrative, by illustrating it and making it vivid; as by analyzing a few flowers the young stu-

[1] Hart's "American History told by Contemporaries," in four volumes, is extremely valuable as reference material for the study of sources.

dent of botany learns some plant structure, and accepts the rest from the text-book, so the student of history, by intimate acquaintance with a few writers of contemporary books, finds his reading in secondary works easier to understand.

"The use of sources enforces on the mind what ought to be familiar to any pupil in history: that the text-book grows out of such material, directly or at second hand; and that the knowledge of the writer of history goes no farther than the sum of his sources. On the Revolution, for instance, the pupil must realize that the books quote only a few out of hundreds of sources, and that generalization from narrow bases is dangerous.

"Sources may very well furnish sufficient types of oft-repeated experience: for instance, from the text-book the pupil gets the impression of the number of voyages of discovery, and of the cross-relations of the Spanish, Portuguese, French, English, Dutch, and Swedes in the New World during two centuries. But the general aim and results of those voyages are well enough set forth in the seventeen pages of Chapter I [of the 'Source Book'], which includes one Spanish voyage and one Spanish land exploration, two English sea-voyages and one land exploration, and one French exploration. Since it is a common experience that the illustration fixes the principle in mind, and not the principle the illustration, it is fair to expect that these illustrative voyages will serve to make

vivid the consecutive narrative of explorations in general."

Hinsdale illustrates well the value of such sources. "Some years ago I read with deep interest the section of an ill-put-together town history, entitled 'The American Revolution.' The town was Torrington, Conn. Here were quotations from the town records, muster rolls of the militia companies, orders for drafts, requisitions for supplies, reports from the seat of war, lists of killed and wounded, etc., interspersed with some incident, anecdote, or personal characterization. Following the tax-gatherer on his rounds; reading the frequent calls for soldiers and orders for the militia to turn out; observing the women at their heavy tasks, spinning wool and weaving flax, making blankets and tents for the army, and often gathering the crops or making the maple sugar; scanning the hard bill of domestic fare, breakfast without tea and dinner without salt — I formed a more realistic view than before of the times that tried men's souls."[1]

Mace sums up this argument with illustrations as follows: —

"The superiority of this sort of material in the process of interpretation may be understood from the following considerations: 1. The facts thus presented are first-hand — unorganized, and the student is left to contend with a real problem with no ready-

[1] "How to Study and Teach History," Hinsdale, p. 34.

made solution at hand; he must work without the author's aid. Without discussing the educational value of this sort of work, it is apparent at a glance that a wide difference separates the direct study of the Mayflower Compact from the study of a school text's statements about this document. 2. This direct study brings immediate contact with the source of truth concerning the content of the Compact. It is possible that texts have been written, whose authors did not have first-hand access to the material of history, but have written from another's interpretation of that material. But what of it? Simply this: the student of such a text will be still farther removed from the real source of truth, and like the author, not knowing all the concrete facts, or not knowing them exactly as they were, may make erroneous interpretations. 3. Even if the facts obtained in the above way are correctly interpreted, there is yet something lacking in the effect produced, which can only be supplied by applying the process of interpretation to original material. In no other way, in the study of historical material, may the student get deep and realistic conceptions of the life he studies — ideas and passions, motives and prejudices, and all those subtle influences that go to make up concrete public sentiment. Take the examples of interpretation given above: how much more easily and correctly could the student put the right content into the events connected with founding

Jamestown if he could read the motives of king and company in the charters granted, and could add to these the opinions of the settlers. Even the writings of John Smith, with all their exaggerations, would give meaning and reality to these events, such as could come in no other way. Again, how can the student get most easily and fully into the minds and hearts of the colonial merchants, the motives and passions that swayed them when organizing the non-importation associations? Evidently by reading the addresses sent to king and Parliament and to the colonial legislatures; by reading the resolutions of town meetings in pledging support; by studying the correspondence between the associations of different towns, and by following the newspaper and pamphlet war that arose over these organizations and their work. Likewise with the struggle over state sovereignty, or any other phase of thought which the student tries to reach through events. Depth of impression and richness of content will always come from this sort of face-to-face contact with a people."[1]

No part of our history shows a closer or more many-sided relation of the best literary works to historical events than the seventh-grade material. Many of the most familiar ballads, orations, and poems of American literature deal with Revolutionary persons and scenes. We should bring the

[1] "Method in History," Mace, p. 44.

history of this epoch into hand-and-glove companionship with the best American literature of the period.

In the reading lessons, which are parallel with the history in the seventh grade, we should read "Paul Revere's Ride," "Song of Marion's Men," "Under the Old Elm," "Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill," Webster's Orations at Bunker Hill, Warren's Address, Declaration of Independence, Speech of John Adams (Webster), Burke's Speech on the American War, Washington's Letters, Farewell Address, etc.; "The Green Mountain Boys," "A Ballad of the Boston Tea Party," "Lexington," "Old Ticonderoga," Everett's Oration on Washington, etc. The strong, true spirit of the Revolutionary patriots nowhere finds better expression than in the graphic word of the poet, which leaves a lasting impress upon young minds. It is the spirit of our best American history that we wish to see live again in the hearts and convictions of the young. In literature this spirit finds the culmination of its influence and the living and lasting form which it creates for itself. History and literature, therefore, should travel together, and reënforce each other's teaching. Reading lessons in historical masterpieces will be strongly helped by previous historical studies, and the ideas gained in history will find themselves intensified and reënforced by the energy and imagery of poet and orator. Our aim is no less than to unite the influences of American literature and history in setting into prominence those personal

and national ideals which are the richest heritage of American culture. History furnishes the plain, crude material which literature works up into a finer fabric. The biography, history, literature, and geography of our native land are studies powerful to stimulate our youth. On this broad, geographical theatre, men of high purpose and strong wills have met the great problems of history and politics, and have solved them with such wisdom and energy that the world has resounded with their names and deeds. Within the last fifty years have risen in our land also half a dozen poets who have interpreted the lessons of our past history, and the hopes and responsibilities of our future with such measured strength and kindling imagery, that every generous youth must feel the spell and awake to the enthusiasm of patriotism. These rich sources of culture and character in our own American history and literature have been but meagrely used in the common schools. They possess untold power to impress the best ideals of country and of home upon the young.

CHAPTER VI

EIGHTH-GRADE HISTORY

The topics assigned to European history in the first term of the eighth grade will be interesting and instructive to eighth-year pupils, if handled orally. The previous studies in the geography, history, and literature of Europe will prepare the way for a better understanding. We have no single text-book that would cover this ground, and long and difficult readings should not be required of the children. Large maps of Europe and of the world will be constantly needed, and these topics will furnish a fine opportunity for a review of the geography of Europe and of the world.

Nothing approaching a deeper historical study of these topics can be made, and yet an important significant idea in each case can be worked out.

In studying American history since the adoption of the Constitution, eighth-grade pupils will meet some problems too difficult for them to solve. The web of our history becomes more complex and intricate. Eighth-grade pupils are from thirteen to fifteen years of age, and not yet capable of deep

and comprehensive thought on social and political affairs. But many of them are completing their education for citizenship, in the common schools, and in making our national history an important culture and character study through the several years of the intermediate and grammar grades, we must decide what topics of our later history are calculated to arouse the thought and interest of the eighth-grade pupils.

The American topics assigned to the eighth grade involve greater difficulties than the history work of any other year of the common school. As we approach the more recent topics of our history, the large and complex scale of events increases, and besides, many of these topics are still in the region of controversy and have not fallen into the clear perspective of history. Not a few of the best teachers have avoided the teaching of nineteenth-century history because of this complexity and unsettled aspect of recent politics. On the other hand, one of the chief purposes of history and school studies generally is to bring the children somewhere near to our modern problems and into sympathy with present social and economic life.

During the four years preceding, the children should have been drawing deep and inspiriting lessons from the biography and history of our earlier epochs. They have become interested in the representative leaders and in the growth of the country

and of its interests. The spirit of patriotism has already become a conscious impulse, setting up attractive ideals to be attained by individuals and by society. This love of country and deep concern for its institutions should grow slowly and steadily, having its roots fed from the rich, concrete, personal materials of history as detailed in biography, and in the dramatic episodes of political life. It is futile to expect such fruitful results except as they spring naturally out of a rich soil well cultivated. The short, hothouse methods of quickly appropriating the condensed results of our history in a single term's or year's course are thoroughly artificial and unnatural.

The expansion of our country under the Constitution until it had covered the better half of a continent with Anglo-Saxon ideas of government, school, and social order, is the theme of this year's study. The gigantic growth and progress of the nation in all essential elements of greatness will become a source of interest and pride. The forces which have threatened to check and mar this progress need to be seen in their hurtful and destructive influence. A few of the larger influences which have wrought such marvellous results in the last hundred years may be plainly seen and understood by eighth-grade children. The more intricate problems of legislation, finance, tariff, taxation, and political maneuvering and compromise may be let alone. We suggest the

following list of topics upon which to focus the chief attention: —

Organization of the government and of the finances.

Growth in territory.

Internal improvement.

History and extension of slavery.

Leading inventions and inventors.

Immigration.

The rise and influence of political parties.

The three departments of our government.

Our system of revenue.

Two leading campaigns of the Civil War.

Civil service reform.

Our plan of work in this grade will be similar to that in sixth and seventh grades, namely, to choose a few important centres of study, to collect about each of them a body of graphic illustrative materials, to trace the causal relations between these centres and other important subjects, and to make all the study more vivid and realistic. This more elaborate study of a few important topics allows also a wider use of references, and cultivates an acquaintance with other than text-books and the method of using them. Most historical subjects have certain dramatic and picturesque phases in which the men or forces at work are brought out in more striking relief. Such was Webster's appearance in the senate in the second speech on Foot's resolution; so the sending of the

first telegraphic message; the completion of the first Pacific railway; Lincoln at Gettysburg, Grant and Lee at Appomattox. It is well to dwell upon these scenes till they stand out in distinctive coloring.

Most of the large topics selected for the eighth-grade history have a continuous, chronological, and causal sequence extending, in some cases, through the whole constitutional period, and much more. The growth of slavery until it culminated in the Civil War and reconstruction, is an illustration of this long-continued sequence of causally related facts. During the eighth grade the chief stages in the slavery conflict should be worked out, and the whole movement surveyed as a unit. Not only so, but an excellent review of slavery during colonial and Revolutionary times may be made so as to secure a broad survey of this whole question from the earliest times to the present. Such a topic as this, worked out in its relations to other leading events, can teach even to children the lesson of cause and effect in history. A second topic which has a continuous development through this whole period and reaches back into colonial times is the growth of territory. The series of problems raised in succession by the steady expansion of population westward is very closely connected with the greatest affairs in our history. The conquest of the northwest territory by Clark during the Revolution was soon followed by the acquisition of Louisiana and Florida. The war with Mexico

resulted in the conquest and purchase of still larger tracts westward. By the purchase of Alaska and the recent acquisitions of the Spanish-American War, we have completed a series of great steps expressing the forward movement of the American people. We should study and compare, one with another, these various additions of territory gained by purchase or by conquest, and pass judgment in a fair-minded way upon the motives which led to these acquisitions. In order to understand this whole topic more perfectly, we should compare the later additions with our original territory in regard to size, population, and resources. Closely connected with this enlargement of territory is the steady admission of new states into the Union, by which a constant change and enlargement of the Union has been effected.

The other large topics of this school year, such as immigration, the rise and growth of political parties, the civil service reform, the laying out of great traffic routes and internal improvements contain this long-continued causal sequence. Children are able to follow out such a causal connection of events if the topics are treated with sufficient fulness, and if time is taken for proper comparisons and reviews of earlier stages in the series of events.

In the seventh grade we discussed somewhat at length the advantage of selecting a few of these great topics for elaborate treatment. A few large units of thought, centres of historic interest, have

great power to organize a multitude of facts and throw them, like an army of soldiers, into ranks and files. Professor George S. Morris gave an excellent philosophical statement of the value of such wholes in historical instruction.

"The first impression that the world of history produces in the mind of the learner is that of an indefinite multitude of different events. One event is not another. Each is a separate fact. Each has its separate place in space or time, or both. Each is what the others are not. . . . But, to stop short with this cognizance of the multitude of facts in their separation and difference, not to see them in the unity of their relations, is not to learn the lesson of history. The mind thus simply filled, or crammed, is not instructed. Its sight is superficial; it is not insight. And the world of history, thus viewed, is not comprehended as an orderly world. It is not a 'rounded world' and 'fair to see.' It puts intelligence to confusion. It is, indeed, my masters, 'a mad World'!

"History is not simply (multifarious) events. It is the logic of events. Historic intelligence is not merely information respecting events. It is the comprehension of their logic.

"Philosophy may be fitly described as the science of wholes. In the last resort it is the science of the whole, as such, or of the one universal drama of existence in the midst of which man is placed, and in which he actively participates. Now, history, accord-

ing to the familiar aphorism, is 'philosophy teaching by example.' Not the 'example,' taken by itself as an isolated fact, is history. Thus taken, it is only a brute fact divested of relations, and offering neither attraction nor support to intelligence. History is the example, plus that which it exemplifies. It is the example, plus its teaching. It is the 'fact' seen in the relations which alone render it comprehensible. It is the fact seen as part or member of an organic whole, and, consequently, as exemplifying in its place and measure the law, idea, or life of the whole. It is, in short, the fact seen as the illustration and phenomenal incarnation of a universal and livingly operative reason, Logos, or logic, which, interior to the fact, is the ground of its reality, and, transcending the particular fact, connects it with all other facts, and so is the ground of its intelligibility. History, taken in its broadest sense, is the object-lesson of philosophy. It is the subject-matter of philosophy's demonstrations. It is the test of the correctness of her conclusions. And true 'history,' in the narrower or more common sense of this word, is nothing if not philosophical.

"Every successful teacher of history, even with the youngest pupils, teaches in something of the philosophical spirit, and with a method more or less philosophical. He does not, indeed, neglect to insist on the acquisition, by patient mnemonic exercise, of exact information regarding particular facts; but he manages, at the same time, to engage the learner's

imagination for the perception of groups of facts viewed as wholes, and having, as such wholes, to some degree, a specific character, coloring, or significance. He makes the pupil exercise with himself the artistic faculty of inward picturing. With immature students this is all that is possible, and it is enough." [1]

It is necessary for the teacher to single out these natural wholes in history, these centres of grouping and picturing, these rallying-points of thought from which causal influences can be traced out, and larger comparisons be instituted.

The system of careful reviews of previous periods of history by means of systematic comparisons of later events with those previously studied may be admirably illustrated in the work of the eighth grade. In fact, the great multitude and variety of facts somewhat carefully studied in all the earlier grades furnishes an excellent basis of comparisons with most of the topics of the eighth year. For example, later modes of travel by steamboat, railroad, electric cars, and automobiles may be compared with the slow and difficult travel of colonial times on horseback over bad roads, often with no bridges across the streams. In the great period of steamboat navigation on the rivers and lakes, it is profitable to compare such journeys with the early canoe voyages of the Indians and wood-rangers, and later with travels

[1] "Method of Teaching and Studying History" (Hall), pp. 150–151.

by rail. The emigration of different nationalities from Europe to this country, since the adoption of the Constitution, may be compared in numbers and quality with that before the Revolution. The chief battles of the Civil War may be compared with those of the Revolution, and of the war with Mexico. In studying the paper money and the financial situation during the Civil War, it is well to look back upon similar facts during the Revolution. Great inventions may be studied and compared with one another in their effects upon the country, such as the locomotive engine, the cotton gin, the steamboat, and the electric telegraph. As already noted, the successive acquisitions of territory may be compared with one another. The statesmen of later periods may be compared with one another and with those of an earlier period. Such comparisons also lead to comprehensive views. By comparison, for example, we shall find that Franklin, John Adams, Hamilton, Washington, Webster, and Lincoln were strong and positive representatives of the federal idea in government, that is, of a strong, central power which is able to control and unify the states. A similar series of comparisons will bring out the fact that Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Jefferson, Calhoun, and Jefferson Davis were distrustful of a central government and disposed to emphasize the idea of state sovereignty. If children gain sufficient knowledge of these men in the course of history instruction to draw these conclusions as the

natural results of comparisons, which they themselves make, the instruction will be of a superior quality. We are disposed to think that the difficulty lies not in the inability of children to draw inferences, but first in the failure to get at the significant facts in the lives of these men, and second in the neglect of the method of comparison.

There is scarcely an important topic of nineteenth-century history which does not admit of these fruitful comparisons with our earlier history. To keep the children thoughtful in seeing resemblances and contrasts between the earlier and later events is the best method of thoughtful review. It leads gradually to the classification of events according to their character and real worth, and to the formation of great series and groups of related topics. The most valuable inferences are drawn from such study.

The value of such comparisons has been affirmed in the most convincing way by some of the best teachers of history. W. C. Collar says: "To point out relations, to contrast and compare times, institutions, events, men, is one of the most delightful and most useful parts of the teacher's work. To encourage pupils to discover likenesses and differences is to promote thinking, to enlarge the mental horizon, to induce a habit of mind of inestimable value. Take, for example, the fundamental laws of the Hebrews, the Greeks, and the Romans; their constitutions, which embodied and expressed their most striking

and distinctive national characteristics. It would be easy to show, how on the one hand the Mosaic constitution, the Decalogue, aimed to make men moral and religious; while on the other the Greek and Roman constitutions sought to form men into soldiers, and to make them into members of a body politic. Hence the importance of private conduct under the one and its relative unimportance under the other, with all the far-reaching consequences that followed. In the study of Greek history a comparison of the two rival states, Athens and Sparta, in spirit and policy, and the tracing of the immediate and remote effects on themselves and all Hellas, will not only impart increased interest, by bringing into clearer relief the essential characteristics, the heroism, the selfishness, the hardihood, the cruelty, the narrowness of the one, and the intelligence, love of knowledge and beauty, but also, alas! the sensuality, levity, and weakness of the other; but it will suggest many an important lesson, and will be an excellent preparation for the reading of modern history with a more intelligent observation and reflection.

"If, then, comparison, conscious or unconscious, is a necessary condition of knowledge, is one in danger of pressing the comparative method of historical study too far? Explicit comparisons at every step are not necessary, and the strict limitations of time must not be forgotten. I have never failed to awaken interest by such comparisons, whether in the study of ancient

or modern history, even when the basis of knowledge on the part of pupils was the slenderest. But a striking parallelism pointed out here and there will be enough to give direction to the thoughts in reading history, to lead pupils, as has already been observed, to see and follow out analogies themselves, to bring home to the consciousness what is far away, and to recognize in what appears new and strange what is known or even familiar. Let me illustrate: —

"Suppose the topic for a lesson has been the Sicilian Expedition. There is hardly to be found a more thrilling narrative than that by the great Greek historian, and the reading of some pages from Thucydides may well occupy a half-hour. A class will hardly find in their course in ancient history so conspicuous an example of the utter disastrous failure of an important undertaking through the irresolution and incapacity of a leader. Let the teacher now tell the story of the Peninsular Campaign of McClellan in our late Rebellion, to illustrate how history is repeated in events and in the characters of men. Nicias was a man of upright character and respectable talents, but as a general cautious to timidity, and in a pinch incapable of coming to a decision. He was one of those men who are always thought to be sure to do great things without its being possible to tell what inspires such confidence. He had the resources of the state at his back, and to support him the unflinching determination of his countrymen to win. He was ably seconded

by his subordinates, and he almost achieved a great success. But at the last moment victory slipped from his grasp, and the hopeless ruin of all his plans quickly followed. Such, at least in the opinion of many, was McClellan, and so ended disastrously his strategy of the spade. As the elder Nicias barely missed capturing Syracuse, so did the modern Nicias all but take Richmond." [1]

Herbert B. Adams says: "It would be a fine thing for American students, if, in studying special topics in the history of their own country, they would occasionally compare the phases of historic truth here discovered with similar phases of discovery elsewhere; if, for example, the colonial beginnings of North America should be compared with Aryan migrations westward into Greece and Italy, or again with the colonial systems of Greece and of the Roman Empire, or of the English Empire to-day, which is continuing in South Africa and Australia and in Manitoba the same old spirit of enterprise which colonized the Atlantic seaboard of North America. It would interest young minds to have parallels drawn between English colonies, Grecian commonwealths, Roman provinces, the United Cantons of Switzerland, and the United States of Holland. To be sure, these various topics would require considerable study on the part of the teacher and pupil, but the fathers of the American Constitution, Madison, Hamilton, and

[1] "Method of Teaching and Studying History" (Hall), pp. 84–87.

others, went over such ground in preparing the platform of our present federal government.

"But my special plea is for the application of the comparative method to the use of historical literature. Students should learn to view history in different lights and from various standpoints. Instead of relying passively upon the *ipse dixit* of the schoolmaster, or of the schoolbook, or of some one historian, pupils should learn to judge for themselves by comparing evidence. Of course some discretion should be exercised by the teacher in the case of young pupils; but even children are attracted by different versions of the same tale or legend, and catch at new points of interest with all the eagerness of original investigators. The scattered elements of fact or tradition should be brought together as children piece together the scattered blocks of a map. The criterion of all truth, as well as of all art, is fitness. Comparison of different accounts of the same historic event would no more injure boys and girls than would a comparative study of the four Gospels. On the contrary, such comparisons strengthen the judgment, and give it greater independence and stability. In teaching history, altogether too much stress has been laid, in many of our schools, upon mere form of verbal expression in the text-book, as though historic truth consisted in the repetition of what some author had said. It would be far better for the student to read the same story in several different forms, and then to

give his own version. The latter process would be an independent historical view based upon a variety of evidence. The memorizing of 'words, words,' prevents the assimilation of facts, and clogs the mental processes of reflection and private judgment." [1]

In discussing the teaching of history stories in the fourth and fifth grades we illustrated, in various ways, the advantage of solving historical problems which arose in the stories. The opportunity for problem-solving is given on a much larger scale in the later history. When Hamilton, for example, took charge of the Treasury Department at the beginning of the first administration of Washington, he had before him the problem of restoring the credit and of establishing a sound financial system for the new government just starting out on its great career. The debts accumulated by the colonies during the Revolution were to be provided for, a revenue secured to the new government by a system of duties and taxes, and a banking system brought into existence which could satisfy the needs of the government and of the people. It seems possible for children to understand the main difficulties which confronted Hamilton and the measures which he took to meet them. Another great problem was that which met Lincoln as he assumed the office of President in 1861. It is advisable to take a survey of the difficulties and perplexities

[1] "Method of Teaching and Studying History" (Hall), pp. 137–138.

which presented themselves to him, and then to get a clear grasp of the one simple idea as the goal toward which all his efforts were exerted, — the maintenance of the union between the states. Every difficulty which he overcame was a step toward the preservation of the union. From this point of view it is interesting to see how he worked out his problem. In a somewhat similar way Grant, in his military career, worked a series of war problems. Some of these can be understood. The story of his investment and capture of Vicksburg was a problem which he worked out with dogged determination. The Missouri Compromise and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill were attempts at the solution of a great problem; but Lincoln, in his debates with Douglas in 1858, grappled with the fundamental conditions of this problem in such a way as to lead to the most overwhelming results.

Of course historical problems become more complex as we come near to the present, and some of them are too difficult for children to comprehend except in their simple and more obvious phases. Such, for example, is our tariff controversy, our system of revenue, the gold standard, and the changes in the platforms of political parties. But in the solution of problems such as children can understand, there is opportunity for a very useful sort of mental discipline, namely, the cultivation of a well-balanced, fair-minded judgment in estimating historical questions

In historical problems we may compare the pros and cons, the arguments on both sides of the question. In discussing the Civil War, for example, children should be taught to think the situation fairly and completely on both sides, the reasons which were convincing to the South that they were in the right, and likewise those of the North. It is only in this way that the irrepressible nature of the conflict can be understood.

In the eighth grade it is expected that children's ideas on civics and civil government will be cleared up so that they may get correct notions of our governmental machinery. In the seventh-grade work we suggested that this could best be accomplished in connection with the history of the framing of the Constitution. Since the beginning of Washington's administration, in 1789, all of our political history may be regarded as a commentary on the Constitution. At that time the whole machinery of the government was put into operation, and since then we have been testing its practical working powers. Up to 1789 our history gave us a great series of acts of constructive statesmanship, culminating in the Constitution. We noted in seventh grade that nearly the whole of early American history is focussed in the Constitution.

The last hundred years and more since the adoption of the Constitution has furnished a series of great practical tests of the strength and flexibility of

the Constitution to meet and satisfy the demands of such a growing country as ours. It may be said that nearly every important controversy in our history since 1789 is a question in regard to the meaning of the Constitution, what the Constitution allows or prohibits. The Emancipation Proclamation of Lincoln was declared by his opponents to be unconstitutional. Long before the war one party claimed that a state had the right under the Constitution to secede; this the other party denied. The question of internal improvements was a question as to the power of Congress under the Constitution. At the present time the power of Congress to regulate the trusts is disputed in the same way. The history, therefore, of the United States consists of a series of illustrations of the meaning and intent of the Constitution, as determined by the greatest events in our history. If children are to be taught by concrete examples, the study of our history is by all odds the best means of understanding civics. The Committee of Seven says:[1] "We do not think that this preparation is satisfactorily acquired merely through the study of civil government, which, strictly construed, has to do only with existing institutions. The pupil should see the growth of the institutions which surround him; he should see the work of men; he should study the living, concrete facts of the past; he should know of

[1] Report of the Committee of Seven. "The Study of History in Schools," pp. 18, 19.

the nations that have risen and fallen; he should see tyranny, vulgarity, greed, benevolence, patriotism, self-sacrifice, brought out in the lives and works of men. So strongly has this very thought taken hold of writers of civil government, that they no longer content themselves with a description of the government as it is, but describe at considerable length the origin and development of the institutions of which they speak."

There seems to be no means of rendering historical ideas so potent, so effective and contagious in their influence upon young people as biography. We are all hero-worshippers, and children more than adults. In eighth grade also it will reward us to select three of the best typical biographies and base a large share of the year's work upon their study. We suggest the three following biographies:—

John Quincy Adams.

Daniel Webster.

Abraham Lincoln.

The public life of John Quincy Adams almost covers the first fifty years of the constitutional period, and, while he is identified with all the important problems of those times, his leadership of the antislavery forces during the last seventeen years in Congress brings him close to the great struggle which culminated in 1861. Daniel Webster stands out as the chief defender of the Constitution and expounder of our form of government. His early

life is of much interest, and his speeches may be much read in seventh and eighth grades, and in the high school. Lincoln was the untried citizen, who, being placed at the head of national interests at the moment of supreme weakness and danger, calmly and patiently met the situation in the spirit of wisdom and patriotism, and the country was saved. These men will be closely studied and their positions on public questions compared with those of other leaders. There are also several other biographies which should be looked into as far as time will permit. Hamilton, Jefferson, Calhoun, Clay, Fulton, Field, Morse, Garrison, Stephens, and Sumner. American history is surely not lacking in culture materials if we will only select the best and use it well.

In view of the remarkable inventions and applications of modern science in the last hundred years, it is appropriate that the biographies of some of the inventors should be studied and the practical effect of these inventions upon commerce, industry, and the comforts of life explained. In a new and rapidly developing country such as ours the effects of scientific invention have been more quickly and powerfully felt than in other slower-moving countries. So great have been the changes wrought by the application of science to life that the achievements of our country in this direction have largely monopolized the energies of our people, so that political and gov-

ernmental affairs have almost taken a second place. Certain it is that to understand our present society in even a few of its leading aspects we must gain insight into the historical forces which have come down to us out of the past, and into those applications of natural science which have worked their way into every corner and crevice of our lives.

A thoughtful teacher in eighth-grade history will make frequent use of local politics and familiar neighborhood experiences in illustrating difficult topics. In connection with banking a careful study of a local national bank, number of directors, capital required, the national banking act under which it operates, and its service to the community, as well as profit to the stockholders, will throw new light upon some very difficult questions in history. In this case the teacher needs to make a practical study of the subject, talk with the bank officers, read the banking act, and become acquainted with the actual sources of profit in the banking business. Herbert B. Adams says: "From a variety of considerations, the writer is persuaded that one of the best introductions to history that can be given in American high schools, and even in those of lower grade, is through a study of the community in which the school is placed. History, like charity, begins at home. The best American citizens are those who mind home affairs and local interests. 'That man's the best cosmopolite who loves his native country best.' The best

students of universal history are those who know some one country or some one subject well. The family, the hamlet, the neighborhood, the community, the parish, the village, town, city, county, and state are historically the ways by which men have approached national and international life. It is a preliminary study of the geography of Frankfort-on-the-Main that led Carl Ritter to study the physical structure of Europe and Asia, and thus to establish the new science of comparative geography. He says, 'Whoever has wandered through the valleys and woods, and over the hills and mountains of his own state, will be the one capable of following a Herodotus in his wanderings over the globe.'

"If young Americans are to appreciate their religious and political inheritance, they must learn its intrinsic worth. They must be taught to appreciate the common and lowly things around them. They should grow up with as profound respect for town and parish meetings as for the state legislature, not to speak of the Houses of Congress. They should recognize the majesty of the law even in the parish constable as well as in the high sheriff of the county. They should look on selectmen as the head men of the town, the survival of the old English reeve and four best men of the parish. They should be taught to see in the town common or village green a survival of that primitive institution of land-community upon which town and state are based. They should

be taught the meaning of town and family names; how the word 'town' means, primarily, a place hedged in for purposes of defence; how the picket-fences around home and house-lot are but a survival of the primitive town idea; how home, hamlet, and town live on together in a name like Hampton, or Home-town. They should investigate the most ordinary things, for these are often the most archaic. For example, there is the village pound, which Sir Henry Maine says is one of the most ancient institutions, 'older than the king's bench, and probably older than the kingdom.' There, too, are the field-drivers (still known in New England), the ancient town herdsmen, village shepherds, and village swineherds (once common in this country), who serve to connect our historic life with the earliest pastoral beginnings of mankind."[1]

Richard T. Ely says: "The writer has indeed found it possible to entertain a schoolroom full of boys, varying in age from five to sixteen, with a discourse on two definitions of capital, — one taken from a celebrated writer, and the other from an obscure pamphlet on socialism by a radical reformer. As the school was in the country, illustrations were taken from farm life, such as corn-planting and harvesting, and from the outdoor sports of the boys, such as trapping for rabbits. Some common, familiar

[1] Pedagogical Library, Ed. by G. Stanley Hall. Vol. I, "Methods of Teaching History," pp. 125, 128, and 129.

fact was kept constantly in the foreground, and thus the attention of the youngest lad was held.

"Perhaps money is as good a subject as any for an opening lecture to bright boys and girls, and the writer would recommend a course of procedure somewhat like this: Take into the classroom the different kinds of money in use in the United States, both paper and coin, and ask questions about them, and talk about them. Show the class a greenback and a national bank-note, and ask them to tell you the difference. After they have all failed, as they probably will, ask some one to read what is engraved on the notes, after which the difference may be further elucidated. Silver and gold certificates may be discussed, and the distinction made clear between the bullion and face value of the five-cent piece, etc. Other talks, interesting and familiar, about alloys, the extent to which pennies and small coins are legal tender, the character of the trade-dollar, etc., will occupy several hours, and delight the class. The origin of money is a topic which will instruct and entertain the scholars for an hour. Various kinds of money should be mentioned; and it is possible you may find examples of curious kinds of money in some hill town not very remote, *e.g.*, eggs, and you are very likely to find several kinds of money in use among the boys and girls, *e.g.*, pins. In one boarding-school, near Baltimore, bits of butter, served the boys at meals in quantities less than they desired,

passed as money, and quite an extensive use of bills and orders, 'negotiable instruments,' was established.

"Taxes can be studied in the town or village. The pupils can learn from their fathers what the taxes are, how they are assessed and collected, and what part of the revenues is used for village purposes, what part for schools, what part for the county, and what part for the state. In any village it cannot be difficult to induce one of the assessors to explain before the class in political economy the principles upon which he does his work. All the pupils can then write essays about taxation in the said place, and perhaps one of them will be able to write a financial history of the town."[1]

One of the questions which is sure to command the thoughtful attention of the teachers in eighth-grade history, is, what use to make of books. We may sum it up briefly as follows: A good text-book containing an outline of the chief facts should furnish the general framework for the reception of fuller materials from other sources. A good text-book is invaluable as a guide through the labyrinth of historical wanderings, but teachers must be on guard not to be enslaved to the narrow limits of thought in even the best text-book. In speaking of history instruction in the German Gymnasium with boys about twelve years of age, C. K. Adams says: "The

[1] Pedagogical Library, Ed. by G. Stanley Hall. Vol. I, "Methods of Teaching History," pp. 63, 64, and 66.

system keeps clearly in view the fact that the pupil is not yet ready for that development which results from hard study. It never ceases to remember that at least three-fourths of all the time spent by a boy of twelve in trying to learn a hard lesson out of a book is time thrown away. Perhaps one-fourth of the time is devoted to more or less desperate and conscientious effort; but the large remaining portion is dawdled away in thinking of the last game of ball and longing for the next game of tag."

In the assignment of the lesson the teacher should pave the way for a more intelligent and interesting study of the book. W. C. Collar says: "First read over the lesson assigned for the next day, or portions of it, with the class; indicate briefly what is of greater and what of less importance; make such explanations as are needful for an intelligent comprehension of the text, and indicate what dates should be committed to memory."

There is also need of a few books which give a complete discussion to important topics. A small number of select biographies belongs also to this group. For reference books the source materials, such as those furnished in Hart's "American History told by Contemporaries," and a few of the historical readers, can be used. The larger histories can be consulted upon special topics in the libraries. The great forensic orations of Clay, Webster, Sumner, and Benton may serve as excellent reading matter

for some children in each class. In the assignment of reference readings, however, a small amount of definite reading, carefully chosen, should be assigned as a part of the required work, while the range of optional readings for those who have time and ability should be quite extensive.

Every teacher must settle the question how many dates to require of the children. It is admitted that chronology offers a necessary framework within which to arrange the materials of history. The important question is, To what extent does the memorizing of dates serve to give a firmer grasp and a clearer understanding of essential ideas in history? It seems to me that a very small number of dates will answer every purpose. The schoolmaster and the programme-maker are generally disposed to multiply chronological tables. The following statement by J. E. Lloyd, of Wales, seems to strike the golden mean. "I cannot say that I attach much importance myself to the storing of the memory even with dates and genealogical tables. No doubt it is convenient to the historian to have such matters at his fingers' ends, but the power of getting them up by heart is something very different from the aptitude for history, and the energies devoted to the task might in most cases, I think, be more profitably employed in other directions. A few leading dates, which serve to articulate the field of study, may be learnt with advantage, but even here I am inclined to believe

that more may be done by means of chronological charts, in which each century occupies an equal space, than by simple tables of dates."[1]

W. C. Collar says: "A word may be here most conveniently said on the subject of chronology. A few dates should be well fixed in the memory; they should be carefully selected by the teacher, and some explanation given of their significance. But 'a few,' you will say, is a little indefinite. Of course, opinions will differ as to the number of indispensable dates in any history, though there might be a general assent to the principle of requiring the pupil to commit as few as possible. Of the 250 dates given in Smith's 'Smaller History of Greece,' I insist on fifteen, and I think the number might be reduced to ten. But if learners are properly taught, they will, of course, be able to determine a great many dates approximately. For example, a boy who has clearly understood the cause, purpose, and results of the Confederacy of Delos could not possibly place it in a time far wrong, with reference to great events before and after it; and a single important date in the century well remembered would enable him to fix very nearly its absolute time."[2]

In discussing the work of previous grades we have

[1] Frederick Spencer, Ed. "Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching," p. 150.

[2] Pedagogical Library, Ed. by G. Stanley Hall. Vol. I, "Methods of Teaching History," pp. 81, 82.

dealt at length with the qualifications of teachers. In the eighth grade the history teacher should become, as far as circumstances permit, an expert in historical knowledge, well acquainted with the most helpful and stimulating books and versatile in method. This matter is well summed up in the Report of the Committee of Seven, as follows: "The first requisite for good teaching is knowledge. The teacher's duty is not simply to see that the pupils have learned a given amount, or that they understand the lesson, as one uses the word 'understand' when speaking of a demonstration in geometry or an experiment in physics. His task is to bring out the real meaning and import of what is learned by adding illustrations, showing causes, and suggesting results, to select the important and to pass over the unimportant, to emphasize essentials, and to enlarge upon significant facts and ideas. A person with a meagre information cannot have a wide outlook; he cannot see the relative importance of things unless he actually knows them in their relations.

"But knowledge of facts alone is not enough. In historical work pupils and teacher are constantly engaged in using books. These books the teacher must know; he must know the periods which they cover, their methods of treatment, their trustworthiness, their attractiveness, their general utility for the purposes of young students. He must have skill in handling books and in gleaning from them the infor-

mation which he is seeking, because it is just this skill which he is trying to give to his pupils. No one would seriously think of putting in charge of a class in manual training a person who had himself never shoved a plane or measured a board. To turn over a class in history to be instructed by a person who is not acquainted with the tools of the trade and has had no practice in manipulating them, is an equal absurdity.

"A successful teacher must have more than mere accurate information and professional knowledge. He needs to have a living sympathy with the tale which he tells. He must know how to bring out the dramatic aspects of his story. He must know how to awaken the interest and attention of his pupils, who will always be alert and eager if they feel that they are learning of the actual struggles and conflicts of men who had like passions with ourselves. Though stores of dates and names must be at the teacher's command, these are not enough. He must have had his own imagination fired and his enthusiasm kindled; he must know the sources of historical knowledge and the springs of historical inspiration; he must know the literature of history and be able to direct his pupils to stirring passages in the great historical masters; he must know how to illumine and brighten the page by readings from literature and by illustrations from art."[1]

[1] Report of the Committee of Seven, "The Study of History in Schools," pp. 115, 116.

The eighth-grade teacher has occasion frequently to use historical maps. The westward movement of the frontier; the admission of new states into the Union, especially in connection with the extension of slavery; the great overland routes across the continent, both before and since the railroads; the distribution of races in North America; the gradual extinction of the Indian title; the geographical aspect of political parties; the location of large trade routes and commercial centres; the outlining of military campaigns; the successive additions of territory; and many other topics in eighth grade can be clearly grasped only by a varied and liberal use of maps.

In many cases blackboard sketches and diagrams made by both teacher and pupils are needed. In the plans of battles and campaigns and in blocking out statistical comparisons, the use of the blackboard is most helpful. Outline maps such as those published by D. C. Heath & Co., Rand, McNally & Co., and those of the United States Geological Survey can be used by the pupils in working out boundaries of new territories, populations, physiographic regions, trade routes, the sectional character of elections, political parties, etc.

Well-selected and appropriate pictures are also of great value in giving definiteness and vividness to historical ideas. Illustrations, pictures, and maps are always useful, even to mature students, in giving

reality and clearness to historical life. The Committee of Seven enforces this point as follows: "Besides the sources which have come down to us in written form and are reproduced upon the printed page, there is another important class of historical materials which is of great assistance in giving reality to the past, — namely, actual, concrete remains, such as exist in the form of old buildings, monuments, and the contents of museums. Many schools have direct access to interesting survivals of this sort, while the various processes of pictorial reproduction have placed abundant stores of such material within reach of every teacher. The excellent illustrations of many recent text-books may be supplemented by special albums, such as are used in French and German schools, and by the school's own collection of engravings and photographs cut from magazines or procured from dealers. Some schools have also provided sets of lantern slides. Of course in order to entitle such illustrations to serious use and to the rank of historical sources they must be real pictures, — actual reproductions of buildings, statues, contemporary portraits, views of places, etc., — and not inventions of modern artists. It is easy to make too much of illustrations, and thus reduce history to a series of dissolving views; but many excellent teachers have found the judicious use of pictures helpful in the extreme, not merely in arousing interest in the picturesque aspects of the subject, but in

cultivating the historical imagination and in giving definiteness and vividness to the pupil's general ideas of the past. An appeal to the eye is of great assistance in bringing out the characteristic differences between past and present, and thus in checking that tendency to project the present into the past which is one of the most serious obstacles to sound views of history. The chief danger in the use of pictorial material lies in giving too much of it instead of dwelling at length on a few carefully chosen examples." [1]

Having outlined the course of study in the common school through the eighth grade, we may conclude the discussion by surveying again the general question of selecting the topics and laying out the history course on the basis of *concentric circles*. This plan purposes to run over the general course of our history about three times in the grades below the high school, each succeeding review purporting to give a broader and deeper knowledge of the chief events and ideas.

In its favor it has the well-established practice of some of the best schools in this country and in Europe. Indeed, it is claimed that in Germany this plan has been followed with such entire success in the best schools of the world that it is the only one worth serious consideration. Psychology and child-

[1] Report of the Committee of Seven, "The Study of History in Schools," pp. 108, 109.

nature have also been identified with this scheme as if they had been born and bred together. But we should not be surprised by this coincidence, for any one who has a scheme can generally find in psychology friendly shelter and protection. In fact, we shall be found later defending our own scheme on psychological grounds.

The opportunity for frequent review of important topics and for that thoroughness to which the schoolmaster is at least theoretically espoused, gives this theory a very strong practical hold. The drill-master has a special fondness for this kind of a scheme, and we confess to a strong leaning toward this weakness of the schoolmaster. This plan of the concentric circles, with its well-arranged review system, has so long held the right of way in schools, and with the theorizers too, that its opponents will not easily turn the schoolmasters and their flocks into a new path.

But we will at least take a glimpse of the other side of the question.

To educate children through history is to do something more than to fix facts in mind by repetition. If the materials are properly selected for each grade, so that children can appreciate them and feel their meaning, there is a sense in which they relive history. Now, to get historical ideas into a child's life is much more significant than to get facts into his memory. It is a matter of wisdom to select for each

grade what the children can thoroughly appreciate and assimilate. Such knowledge has a much more wholesome effect both upon the intellect and upon the heart, than knowledge that must be dinned into his mind by later repetitions before he gets it fixed. The reason, perhaps, why this repeated memory cram of the concentric circles, this more or less mechanical reiteration by successive reviews is deemed necessary, is that the facts never have been properly assimilated, and a forcing process of reviews is the only thing that can pound them into the memory. The failure to select history materials suitable to the true life and spirit of children compels the teacher to resort to a system of routine drills to make up the deficiency. The schoolmaster prides himself upon his rigorous review drills, he ought to be ashamed of himself for making them necessary.

The materials used in each grade should be such as the children can master and assimilate as they go along. It thus enters as a daily nutrient into their lives, building up and strengthening character and disposition. It is a crude and thoughtless method to lay out a long period of history and say, — let the children run over this once and pick up what they can, let them go over it a second time and gather a little more, and the third time the same. Such a plan goes at the problem blindly, dodging the chief pedagogical problems, such as the nature and fitness of different historical materials and the adaptation of

those selected to the marked stages and changes in childhood and youth.

The use of biographies in the first series of the concentric circles is by no means a solution of these difficulties. To run over the whole of European and American history in brief biographies as a primary course, shows no pedagogical discrimination. Biographies differ as much in their nature and content, in their simplicity or difficulty, as do other kinds of historical material. To put such widely different biographies as those of Leonidas, Pericles, Horatius, Hannibal, Julius Cæsar, Arminius, Frederick the Great, Bismarck, Richelieu, Alfred, Cromwell, Gladstone, Bruce, Gustavus Adolphus, John Smith, and Robert Lee into one series for children in fourth and fifth years, is an astonishing piece of pedagogical freakishness. They do not belong together at all. Horatius and Alfred and John Smith would well consort together as similar in quality and simplicity. But Pericles and Frederick the Great and Bismarck and Gladstone are totally different in their spirit and content, and belong to a wholly different era both in history and child life, if, indeed, they belong to child-life at all. Why historians should ignore these stupendous differences and dump such heterogeneous and ill-assorted materials into one period of childhood is incomprehensible. It is quite clear that we need choice biographies in every year of school life, and even in high school and college. But nothing

needs to be selected with greater care than the biographies suitable to children and youth in the successive periods of school life. To put Boone in with Gladstone is as incongruous as putting primary children into high school classes. We need the enlivening and vivifying influence of appropriate biographies in each year of school life, as a means of illustrating and typifying the predominant ideas of different epochs.

The theory of the culture of epochs, — that is, of the correspondence between race-growth and child-growth, — whatever it may be worth, does not support the idea of the concentric circles. A given culture epoch has been often repeated in history, but not in the same individual or nationality. As children grow they are expected to grow out of one age into another. Just to the extent to which a child really lives and experiences a period of history, he should outgrow it and never be compelled to become immersed in it again. It will reëcho in his later experience, but the man should never become a boy again in the full sense.

The assumption that the experience of Germany on this point is conclusive proves too much. The most respectable progressive school in Germany, that of Herbart and his disciples, has long since abandoned the idea of concentric circles in history, has for years laid out a school course and followed a wholly different principle, and has given the most vigorous reasons

for doing so. The traditional course of the German classical gymnasium is the one always cited as an example of the concentric circles. Of all the courses in the world this is the one perhaps least adapted to the common schools of America. For ten years, from the age of eight to eighteen, the boys in a German gymnasium are kept solidly at work upon the original Latin and Greek classics. The common schools of this country have absolutely nothing of this, and it is difficult to see why a history course based upon that of the German gymnasium should be foisted upon the children of this country. Even our high schools which prepare for college have abandoned the course of the German classical gymnasium, and for our common school, which has wholly abandoned the classical languages, and the course of study based upon them, it is an anachronism to require the whole history of Europe, and even of the world, as a preface to American history in the seventh and eighth grades. The real difficulty with such a course is that it is made out almost wholly from the historian's view of the chronological and causal connection of events, and with almost no regard for modern ideas of child-development, that is, of the motives and activities which predominate in the period of childhood up to the age of fourteen.

The points of defence of the course of study in history offered in this book (as against the plan of concentric circles) may be briefly put as follows: —

1. The intention is to select in each grade only those topics which a child at that age can thoroughly appreciate, enjoy, and assimilate, in short, — experience, — and thus receive the essence of its educative influence.

2. Each of these topics should be a centre for the organization of a considerable body of knowledge, and a type which will bring it into fruitful comparison with earlier and later topics.

3. Thoroughness in knowledge is provided for (*a*) by a full, descriptive, and interesting treatment of each topic the first time it is taken up, tracing out its significant relations, and focussing the facts in such a way as to show up its real meaning and importance. The complete mastery of the topic, as tested by reproductions by the pupils, is possible because the subject is within the range of their understanding; (*b*) by frequent comparisons of later topics with similar or contrasted topics treated earlier in the course. Many illustrations of these reviews by comparison have been given in all grades; (*c*) by reaching back constantly into earlier history, previously studied, for the causes and explanations of later developments. This involves, in a more direct way, the excellent results which are supposed to come from the review system of the concentric circles; because it brings the review of topics into immediate relation to later events needing such explanation; (*d*) the concentration of many of the reading lessons upon the master-

pieces of historical literature throws an intense sidelight upon history. In many cases the impressions are more powerful and lasting than those of history itself. This brings about a striking review of historical events from new standpoints. In a similar way geography lessons, if properly selected and treated, are constantly throwing a new light upon history; (*e*) the collateral readings from source-books, historical readers, large histories, historical novels and literature, such as the teacher should encourage children to read, will deepen the impressions of great events and ideas in history.

CHAPTER VII

THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY WITH OTHER STUDIES

It is easy to see that history is bound up with other studies in a variety of close connections. Sometimes history throws much light on geography or literature, or the latter studies contribute valuable aid to history.

When once the important and even vital connection between history and other studies is clearly seen, there is real difficulty in drawing accurately the line of separation between them. For example, geography and history are so closely bound together that in teaching either one of them the other must be considered. If we had no such independent study as geography, the geographical knowledge necessary to the understanding of a good course in history would give us a tolerably complete acquaintance with political geography. If history and geography were studied together, as indicated in the following passage from Carlyle, children might gain almost as much geographical knowledge as they do at present, without the independent study of geography. Carlyle says: "History is evidently the

grand subject a student will take to. Never read any such book without a map beside you; endeavor to seek out every place the author names, and get a clear idea of the ground you are on; without this you can never understand him, much less remember him."

W. C. Collar says, "Historical instruction without the constant accompaniment of geography has no solid foundation, is all in the air."

Hinsdale says: "The earth is most interesting when considered in relation to its human uses. Geography provides man his sphere of life, and then finds its highest interest, not in its deserts or crags, its glaciers or cañons, but in its human elements. Political geography is nothing but a form of applied history."[1]

Miss Salmon says: "The dependence of history upon the physical character of a country is evident when it is seen to what extent these conditions have determined those on which history is based. The beginnings of nations have been influenced by the existence of broad, fertile valleys, while very high or very broad mountain chains have, outside of America, decided national frontiers. The necessity for individual protection determined the sights of the hill fortress-towns of ancient Greece and of mediæval Italy, as protection again has led to the choice of sites partly encircled by water, as Durham, Venice, Bern, and Constantinople; or for strength, as the towns

[1] "How to Study and Teach History" (Hinsdale).

of Grenoble and Belfort; commercial reasons have placed towns at the junction of two rivers, as Mainz, Coblenz, and Lyons, or near the mouths of rivers, as Philadelphia, New Orleans, and Havre. Trade routes, military operations, terms of treaties, have all been conditioned by geographical features." [1]

Not only the careful study of maps and historical charts for the fixing of the geographical stage of action is necessary, but the free sketching of maps on the blackboard by both teacher and pupil is the best means of giving clearness and perfect comprehension. This kind of geography is, if anything, better than political geography studied by itself, because it is an application of geographical knowledge to human necessities and a discovery of the reasons for the facts.

Hinsdale says further: "There are still other reasons for emphasizing geography in connection with history. Historical events that are not located by the pupil are neither understood nor remembered. History that is read without due attention to its theatre is too much like an imaginary account of similar transactions in the moon."

And again: "Careful study of a good map is the next best thing to visiting a historical locality in person. To a certain extent geography and history are but one study; and the effort now made in schools to study them in close connection is worthy of all

[1] "Some Principles in the Teaching of History."

praise. Thus the memory is wholly dependent upon the associating activities of the mind. Without them nothing could be retained and nothing could be learned. Besides, contiguity of space is one of the most powerful of these activities. In view of these facts we need not enlarge upon the importance of the place-element in history."

On the other hand, history contributes to a vital interest in geography. It would hardly be an extravagant statement to say that the places of greatest geographical interest in the world are those that have been made memorable by historical events, such as Bunker Hill, Marathon, Gettysburg, the city of Athens, of Jerusalem, of London, of Boston, etc. What interest should we have in the geography of Scotland apart from its historical literature? What a glow of interest is thrown around the geography of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River by the canoe voyages of La Salle, Hennepin, Marquette, and Joliet! Starved Rock is the most interesting geographical feature in Illinois. In New York State, the Hudson, Lake Champlain, and the central lake region have a hundred lively historical associations. On this point Hinsdale says: "Men toil and suffer to visit countries and places having little living interest. The Holy Places attract pilgrims because they have been made holy by devoted and self-denying lives. Moses is greater than Mount Sinai, Abraham than Palestine, Jesus than the Lake

of Galilee. It is very true that back of the event lie causes, thoughts, feelings, and activities; but there is a certain tendency to look for them, and also the event itself, in the locality."

The yoking together of history and geography in the same lesson in history need not produce any confusion of mind as to which is history and which is geography. The lesson is primarily a history lesson, and the standpoint from which the geographical facts are viewed is historical. So long as the controlling historical idea of the lesson is kept clearly in mind, it makes no difference how many tributary geographical facts are drawn into the treatment.

In a geographical lesson, likewise, historical facts may be drawn in so long as they contribute to the better understanding of the chief geographical topic. Confusion arises only when the teacher is unable to keep a controlling idea or standpoint clearly in mind, but instead, shifts back and forth between history and geography.

History and literature are not less closely bound together and merged into one than history and geography. Many of the best products of historical literature are among the best sources of history. The Homeric poems are not historical in the strict modern sense, and yet no one would be disposed to deny the overwhelming influence which they exerted upon the strictly historical period of Greek life. It seems unquestionable also that we have in Homer the best

descriptions of early Greek customs and ideas ever given to the world. The early ballads of European countries are historical in a similar degree, and are extremely pleasing to children. W. C. Collar says: "But for awakening the sympathies and moving the imagination of children, I attach greater importance to the aid to be derived from imaginative literature, particularly poetry. Poetry gives life and reality to history. History describes, poetry paints; and this is often true of poetry that ranks neither in the first nor in the second order. For years I have found it very useful to have Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' read in connection with the mythical part of Roman history. There is nothing like the magic charm, whether of sublimity or pathos, that poetry lends to historical events, persons, and places. Who can read Milman's magnificent ode on the Israelites crossing the Red Sea without a consciousness, if he reflects upon it, of a fresh and more vivid realization of a scene familiar to his imagination from childhood? How Scott's beautiful hymn, sung by Rebecca in 'Ivanhoe,' makes us see, as the Scripture narrative never did, the slow onward toiling of the Israelites through the rocky fastnesses and over the sandy deserts of Arabia, guided by the pillar of cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night!"[1]

Nearly all the great epic poems, such as the

[1] "Methods of Teaching and Studying History" (Hall).

"Æneid," the "Iliad," and "Odyssey," the story of Siegfried, the Arthurian legends and tales of chivalry, have a distinct historical side, no matter how mythical they may appear.

Some of the longer poems most commonly used in the schools, such as "Marmion," "The Lady of the Lake," "Courtship of Miles Standish," and "Evangeline," and a few of the plays of Shakespeare, such as "Julius Cæsar" and "Henry VIII," are still more explicitly historical. This poetical material is extensively used in the regular reading exercises and gives greater intensity and vividness to historical events. The orations of the great speakers of the world, such as those of Webster, Burke, Cicero, and Demosthenes, are wholly historical, and are among the most interesting and powerful expressions of historical scenes. Quite a number of these are used in the grammar and high schools. Again, historical novels, such as Scott's "The Talisman," Thackeray's "The Virginians," and Cooper's "The Spy," are very significant in their bearings on history. Even many of the most famous essays, as those of Macaulay, Carlyle, Motley, Emerson, Lowell, and Schurz, are discussions of purely historical biographies or events. Many of the best prose stories used in the grades are historical, such as Hawthorne's "Grandfather's Chair," Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather," Hawthorne's "Biographical Stories," some of Lamb's "Tales of Shakespeare," Plutarch's "Lives," etc.

It is possible in this way barely to suggest the numerous and vital relations between history on the one side, and readings from good literature on the other.

In all the preceding chapters which discuss the value of historical materials in the grades from the fourth through the eighth, we have given scores of illustrations of this close connection between history and literature. While each study maintains its separateness, the powerful side-lights thrown upon history by literature and reading exercises are such as to greatly reënforce and even to vitalize the lessons of history. Our American literature abounds in the most striking illustrations of the poetic illumination of historical events. The Bible is the great standard illustration of the mingling of the historical and poetic elements, and for this reason, in large part, the Bible has had a marvellous influence upon the world. In a similar way it would not be difficult to make up a bible of American history and literature, and our course of study should contain just this.

The common schools can greatly improve their course of study and much increase the educative influence of history and literature by a systematic plan of emphasizing these relations between the three studies, history, geography, and reading.

In the course of study to which one chapter of this volume is given we may see an effort to run the lines

of history, geography, and literature parallel. This parallelism may be observed in the following points: In the earliest historical and geographical studies, the home neighborhood is taken first, and from this point as a radiating centre both geography and history are traced outward to the surrounding states and to America as a whole; afterwards to Europe and other continents. In the fourth and fifth grades the stories of the pioneers of America and of the ocean explorers deal with precisely the same geographical regions which are studied in the geography of the same grades. There is not an important river valley or mountain region in the United States which is not made interesting to children by one or more of the famous pioneer stories, while British America, Mexico, and the West Indies are not behind in the fame of early explorers. This makes the geography and history of North America the basis of study for two full years in the intermediate grades. This plan of running the two studies parallel introduces scores of interesting and instructive relationships between them. Almost every lesson in history is a lesson in geography in North America, and scarcely a topic in geography can be handled without involving important facts in history. In the reading lessons many of the choicest American poems, ballads, and stories, having a strong historical and geographical setting, are also studied, such as Irving's "Rip Van Winkle," "Sleepy Hollow," and "Dolph Heiliger"; "The

Great Stone Face," "Hiawatha," "Sheridan's Ride," "Evangeline," "The Oregon Trail," Franklin's Autobiography, Schurz's "Essay on Lincoln," Whittier's "Songs of Labor," "Cobbler Keezar's Vision," "The Merrimack," "Mabel Martin," and "Snow-Bound," and many others. It is difficult to see why any objection should be made to such a correlation of studies, while the advantages springing from it are of the highest value.

We now pass on to the geography of Europe. For three or four years previous to this many of the most interesting stories of European history and literature have been studied and geographically located, such as David, King Alfred, Tell, Bruce, Wallace, many of the Greek and Roman stories, Siegfried, Roland, Hannibal, Cæsar, etc. The great explorers, Columbus, Hudson, Magellan, John Smith, Raleigh, and others have been studied in their European surroundings, and have thus created greater interest in those countries. According to our course of study in the first part of sixth grade we take the stories of the Persian wars in Greece, and of the conflict between Rome and Carthage. These historical stories throw a charm around the Mediterranean countries which deepens the effect of the old myths and gives a strong foothold for the later geography of southern Europe.

During the sixth year we continue the history of the colonial settlements in North America made by

the English, Dutch, French, Scotch, Swedes, and Germans, and have frequent occasion to visit the countries of Europe from which these emigrants came. It is easy to see that Europe becomes a very important centre for geographical, historical, and literary study, and that the natural and vital connections between the three studies are so numerous as not only to produce a lively interest in all of them, but each study becomes a means of constantly reviewing and interpreting the facts of the other two.

In the eighth grade the geography of other countries, such as Asia, Africa, South America, the great oceans and the world-whole are studied somewhat in detail. The centre toward which all these topics point is Europe. The chief thread of connection is the historical fact that for the last four centuries the leading European countries have been engaged in exploring and subjugating the whole world from Europe as a centre. The first great exploring voyages were followed by large emigrations of Spaniards, English, Dutch, Portuguese, and French, which have, little by little, put the less civilized nations under contribution to Europe. This may at least be regarded as one of the strong threads of geographical connection between Europe and the rest of the world. The great traffic routes to North and South America and to Asia by way of the Cape of Good Hope and the Mediterranean, are the product of this historical development of geography.

Throughout the work of the seventh and eighth grades the natural connections between geography and history are kept up. In these grades the literature of Europe, which is partly historical in character, especially that of England, finds recognition in a full treatment of many of the best English classics, such as the "Merchant of Venice," Plutarch's "Lives," "Vicar of Wakefield," "Tom Brown's School Days," "Julius Cæsar," "Roger de Coverley," "Lady of the Lake," "The Deserted Village," Macaulay's "Historical Essays," Motley's "Peter the Great," Dickens's "Tale of Two Cities," and a large number of other poems and historical stories.

It may be seen from this discussion of the correlation between geography, history, and literature that the United States and Europe become the converging centres of study in these three great branches of knowledge in the common schools. It is not deemed that this is an artificial scheme of correlation, but rather a natural arrangement of studies according to their fitness to arouse the intellectual and moral activities of children, and to equip them with a body of knowledge well organized, which will qualify them for life. At every point in the selection of these materials it is necessary to abide by those fundamental, pedagogical principles which will secure to the children the best development of their own powers and character and at the same time their equipment for life in the modern world.

The correlation of history with natural science has as yet attracted but little attention. It is apparent at a glance that the progress of the world has been largely due to scientific discovery. Little effort has been made to bring the course in history into any close contact with topics in natural science discussed in the regular school lessons. There are a few prominent cases, such as the invention and use of gunpowder, the mariner's compass, the steam-engine, the screw-propeller, the telegraph, the cotton-gin, the power-loom, the safety-lamp, the electric light, vaccination, the monitor, etc., in which an invention has a pronounced effect upon history and human affairs. To what extent such topics as these may be taught in the regular science lessons parallel with history so as to show the historical importance of inventions remains for the course in science to determine.

One of the admitted aims of the common school course is to give a child close practical acquaintance with modern life. This includes both the historical institutions brought down from the past which are so influential upon our present life and the great body of scientific knowledge, invention, and discovery, which has come to play such a controlling part in all modern industry and comfort. The course of study should certainly lead a child to a better understanding of these scientific forces in our society. In geography, in which we deal extensively with all forms of industrial life, many of the chief topics of natural

science are directly touched upon. But a closer examination of the content of history will bring out a great many important connections between history and natural science. Even the pioneer stories are not lacking in this valuable sort of correlation. North America, under the eyes of the explorers, was one vast region of nature's wonder works. Rivers, mountains, forests, wild animals and natural products of all sorts reveal those forms and phenomena of nature which children of that age are most inclined to study. But in addition to this the inventions of men, such as the compass, the thermometer, barometer, and firearms, glass, steel instruments, the art of writing, fire-water, mirrors, etc., are employed upon their exploring expeditions. Several of the exploring parties were sent out for purely scientific purposes.

Another source of scientific interest of recognized importance is the biographies of distinguished inventors and scientific men. Men like Davie, Stephenson, Fulton, Whitney, Morse, and Edison furnish instructive biographies for young people, and at the same time introduce them to interesting topics in natural science. Many of the most important applications of natural science in the shape of inventions and discoveries historically significant in the history of our country are simple enough to be understood, and the great changes which this sort of progress has made can be appreciated.

In connection with history, geography, and natural

science, there has been opened up of late a very important field of constructive effort on the part of children which is destined in a short time to work out great improvements in education. We have already discussed the value of manual training and constructive work in connection with history and literature in building houses and forts, in making furniture and tools, and in shaping other simple products of pioneer or primitive society, including such things as making a loom, weaving cloth, tanning leather, constructing boats, huts, etc. But in addition to these forms of making and doing, history and geography together lead us deeply into industrial life of all sorts, with its machines and processes, such as mill-wheels, saws, lathes, augers, drill machines, metal work of all kinds, and the reduction of raw material many of which the children may illustrate and work out in a crude way. In geography also many of the inventions based upon natural science find their immediate use. The experiments involved in natural science study require also a use of materials, tools, and instruments closely akin to the work of manual training. The vital relationship of all these different studies with one another when clearly seen and worked out is destined to give a unity and consistency to all our efforts in different studies, which they at present greatly lack.

It may be said in conclusion on the subject of correlation that all the important studies, such as his-

tory, reading, geography, science, and manual training, have a strong and increasing tendency to culminate in the forms of *fine art* as we find them in music, painting, sculpture, ceramics, woven fabrics, architecture, and literature. For example, music as applied to singing of classic, patriotic, and religious songs, greatly intensifies and strengthens the educative effect. Many of the best historical paintings, as the landing of Columbus, his reception by Ferdinand and Isabella, and others have a distinct educative value in connection with history. Most of the best works of modern sculpture in this country deal with historical topics, and some of the famous buildings in America, and especially in Europe, have both an historical and architectural importance. Certainly the leading forms of architecture can be made familiar to children in connection both with history and geography. The more our teachers accustom themselves to discover and appreciate these numerous relationships between studies, the greater intelligence and rationality they will find in all studies. But one of the things most needed at first is a course of study in which the various branches of knowledge are selected and arranged with a definite regard for the interesting and appropriate correlations which are known to exist between the studies.

CHAPTER VIII

COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY

THE following Course of Study in History, based on the ideas discussed in this book, is designed for classes from the third through the eighth grade of the common school. If this course seems too elaborate for some schools, and needs to be improved by the omission of some topics, it may still serve as a substantial basis for the course as a whole.

There are a number of problems to be solved in working out such a course of study.

After the aim has been fixed and the general theory for the best selection of materials established, we must decide the relative importance of American and European history in the common school; the relation of the history to the reading lessons, literature, and geography in the corresponding grades; and finally the basis for the selection of leading topics for each year.

This chapter will outline the course, not only in history, but also in the related historical and classical

readings, and in geography, so as to show in a simple form the interrelations of history, reading, and geography.

In this course of study American history is made the chief basis and backbone of history instruction for each grade from the fourth year on. The reasons for this, previously discussed, are briefly summarized as follows: —

1. American history, beginning with the simplest conditions of early exploration and settlement, advances by regular steps in a process of growth to our present complex conditions of political and social and industrial life. In a relatively short period most of the important stages of national growth are well illustrated in our own history.

2. The chief epochs and crises of our history are extremely instructive and interesting to children.

3. The excellent biographies of the leading characters of American history are of a superior quality, and have great educational value for children and youth.

4. The best parts of European history of educative value for children can be placed side by side with the corresponding and appropriate parts of American history.

5. A general chronological outline of the world's history is out of the question for the common school. A wholly wrong viewpoint for judging the course in history in the common school is furnished by a world-

chronology and by the course of study in the classical gymnasium, which is often cited.

6. History in our common school should begin with America and end with America, with such incorporation of European history as will give the necessary breadth and variety of culture. The parallel reading lessons based on European classics and history stories will supplement the history studies with those best parts of European culture which children are capable of appropriating.

7. Our present course of study and the whole tendency of American schools, show that American history must be the chief staple of our history course. On the other hand, the increasing use of European classics and historical tales in our schools shows our appreciation for the best elements of European culture. There is not the slightest disposition in this course to limit our history to a narrow Americanism.

European History. Its Place in the Common School and its Relation to American History

1. The fairy tales, folklore, and mythologies of European countries are, in this course, not regarded as a part of the history proper, but as belonging rather to the oral work in literature of the first three years of school. These stories and myths constitute a very important part of the educative materials of primary grades, and are indispensable both in them-

selves and as a preliminary to history. They are sufficiently important to be regarded as a distinct body of educative material. Their separate and growing importance in primary grades is shown in many ways.

2. A few important topics of European history are selected for full treatment in each grade from the fourth year on. They may precede or follow the American stories in the same grade. They are not mere supplements to American history, but important culture products for separate treatment.

3. The selection of these topics is based, not upon chronology, but upon the quality of the story, its spirit and setting, and its fitness to educate children of the given age. European history offers the widest choice from the simple to the complex, from the worthless to the most valuable, from savagery and barbarism to the highest culture state reached by Athens, Paris, or London. It is an incomparable error to dump all this into a child's mind in chronological order in the grades.

4. Many biographies and events in European history have a close kinship with similar topics in American history. These should be brought side by side in the same grade. If they breathe the same spirit, teach the same lesson under different conditions, they will double its educative effect. It is well to compare Columbus's explorations to the west with those of De Gama to the east. Champlain, La Salle,

and George Rogers Clark were men of the same heroic temper and endurance as David and Coriolanus and King Alfred.

5. The real educative influence of European history can be secured to children by such a careful selection of those episodes best adapted to their interest and understanding and to their social needs.

6. American topics should be traced back to their sources in European history and European topics followed to their results in America. The books and maps by which this can be done are now much more available than formerly.

Selection of a Few Leading Topics

In the course here offered a very few prominent standard topics of American history are selected for each grade. This plan excludes the heaping up of miscellaneous facts for memory work as well as the tedious chronological series for the early years.

1. Each one of these topics should fit the age, understanding, and interest of children. Often the activities, games, drawings, and constructions incident to such history stories are the natural reactions of the children upon the material and show an important phase of its pedagogical fitness.

2. Each topic should contain a vital core which gives it a real educative significance. It should

plant in a child's mind a living germ capable of strong and beneficent growth.

3. Such a topic may be a biography, an event, a campaign, an invention, or the growth of an idea.

4. Each one of these topics should be worked out as a complete unit of thought, interesting in itself and in the associated facts, and provoking inquiry by a close succession of connected facts, giving a rational sense and movement.

5. Biographical stories furnish a large number of such topics and constitute, especially in the early years of history study, the choicest and most educative historical material.

6. American history is probably the richest in choice biographical stories of any country in the world, and, as much of this material comes from the earlier, simple stages of our pioneer life, it is especially appropriate to children.

7. Such biographical and other topics are, of course, leading types and become centres for the organization of historical material. They simplify history by focussing it in a few leading characters, events, or ideas. Such important central topics also form an excellent basis for comparison and review, biography being compared with biography, event with event, etc., the children being led constantly to look backward over their previous studies for comparisons.

The Reënforcement of History through Choice Readings from American and European Literature

Great is the value of American and European literature as a reënforcement to the history instruction. In the regular reading work of the schools, from the third grade upward, there is a large amount and variety of classic reading matter which is now used in the schools — poems, biographies, ballads, narrative history, novel, essay, and epic story, such as "Marmion," "Courtship of Miles Standish," "Horatius at the Bridge," "Paul Revere's Ride," Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather," "Ivanhoe," Hawthorne's "Grandfather's Chair," etc. In order to show the value of this literary material used in reading lessons as a supplement to history a list of the parallel classic reading now available, and much of it now in common use, is shown in each grade: (1) the American selections, and (2) the European selections.

In judging the importance of this connection between history and reading the following considerations should be kept in mind: —

1. Much of the best literature of America and Europe is historical in character and content, and, so far as it enters into the reading course, should be brought into the closest relation to the corresponding history topics. No forced correlation should be sought, but what is natural and rational.

2. In selecting the best literary products, suited for reading lessons, without any thought of teaching history, we have been wont to choose many poems and stories which give a remarkably full and clear description to great historical events and persons.

3. Often a masterpiece of literature is, for children, a most suggestive treatment of a topic in history, *e. g.*, Southey's "Battle of Blenheim," Holmes's "Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill," Plutarch's "Alexander the Great," Shakespeare's "Julius Cæsar," etc.

4. The course of study should take advantage of this very intimate relation between history and reading lessons, and thus cause the reading lessons to contribute greatly to the force and completeness of history-study. History seldom takes the time for such an intense and realistic treatment of a history topic as is given, for example, in "Marmion" of the battle of Flodden field and its attendant events. Literature has thus a way of deepening and ingraining the lessons of history, which is beyond anything which history itself can do.

5. A careful examination of this course of history as related to the reading will show that the history and reading lessons, to a considerable degree, are laid out on parallel lines. The simple reason for this is the fact that an event or story in history which thoroughly interests a child will interest him still more if put in a simple literary form which he can

understand; *e.g.*, "Paul Revere's Ride," "Barbara Frietchie," "The Battle of Ivry," etc. In the nature of the case, when the history and reading touch the same or kindred topics, they should walk close together.

6. Besides the English classics of a historical character used in regular reading lessons the supplementary books in literature and history read by children at home or in the school library may still further broaden and deepen their historical knowledge. Fully half of the historical readings indicated in this course of study are of this supplementary character. Most children have plenty of time at home for this kind of reading, and the school should give it a wise direction and stimulus. The appended lists show how excellent and abundant are the books adapted to each grade of school.

7. In most cases the masterpieces of literature of an historical character are handled in reading lessons a year or two later than the corresponding history topics in history. Several reasons may be assigned for this: (*a*) The difficulty of the language and literary form; *e.g.*, "Lady of the Lake," "Evangeline," Webster's "Speech on Bunker Hill," Plutarch's "Lives," Franklin's Autobiography, and others. (*b*) The artistic quality in a fine piece of literature does not at first appeal to a child. (*c*) A masterpiece of literature has often a greater depth and maturity of thought regarding an historical event and requires

a more advanced age in the pupil. (*d*) The poem or drama often needs the foregoing history as a basis for its understanding. Such a poem is often a splendid retrospect and vital summing up of earlier historical studies; *e.g.*, Lowell's "Under the Old Elm," Webster's orations. It serves the student as a noble review of earlier studies, and draws lessons not seen at first.

On the other hand, many of the best poems and stories are so simple and graphic that they can be used as reading lessons in the same grade in which the corresponding history topics are treated; *e.g.*, "Courtship of Miles Standish," "Paul Revere's Ride," "Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill," Hawthorne's "Grandfather's Chair," and others.

THIRD GRADE

HISTORY

Christmas celebration: The Christmas story, with Christmas tree, pictures, etc. This is customary with all the primary grades. The story is narrated to younger children. Poems of Christmas time for recitation and song. These exercises do not partake so much of the character of instruction as of entertainment and joyful festivity.

Thanksgiving celebration: History of early Thanksgiving days. Poems and stories. By means of pictures and stories something of early New England life is given.

Washington celebration: Stories of Washington. A full treatment of the early life of Washington is not expected, but an acquaintance with the more interesting stories and surroundings of his childhood. Other national characters treated in a similar way.

Local history of the town or neighborhood: The early settlers of the town and neighborhood. Stories of the most prominent pioneers; where they came from. Early log-houses. Hardships. First school-houses. Early roads and modes of travel. Family history. Grandfather stories.

The family and neighborhood traditions are the best beginnings of history, and an interest in them should be regularly cultivated both in the home and school. The grandfather stories give first notions of chronology.

Indian life and relics: Stories of Indian life and adventure in the early settlement of the neighborhood and of the region of country adjacent.

Different nationalities in the community and where they came from.

The geography of the third grade is expected to deal with the hills, streams, valleys, products, and occupations of the village and adjacent country. Simple and primitive forms of industry are worked out.

In literature the Greek and other myths are handled orally by the teacher and told again by the children.

FOURTH GRADE

HISTORY

Discoveries and Explorers

Pioneers of the home state and neighboring states. The movement is gradually from home outward. For example, New York State, as the home and starting-point, may begin with the following stories: —

Henry Hudson: Trip up the Hudson. Other voyages. Meeting with the Indians. A map of the world is needed and a good board sketch of the Hudson, locating the places of special interest on the trip of the "Half Moon."

The earliest Dutch settlers: Trading with the Indians. The customs, buildings, and dress of the Dutch. Give some account of their previous home in Holland. A map and pictures are needed. Drawings may be made by the children. Constructions also of forts, palisades, Dutch houses, ovens, and windmills are to be encouraged. The activities of children in such efforts are easily set going, if materials are furnished.

Champlain: Explorations. Expeditions against the Iroquois. First settlements along the St. Lawrence. First battle with the Indians on the shore of Lake Champlain. Locate France on the map, and trace the journey across the Atlantic.

The Five Nations: Their homes and customs. Warlike character and expeditions. The map of central

New York should be drawn and the warlike raids of these tribes into the neighboring regions indicated.

La Salle: In Canada. At Niagara. On the Great Lakes. In Illinois and on the lower Mississippi. His hardships, dangers, and resolution. Tonty and Hennepin in relation to La Salle. Miles Standish at Plymouth. The trials of the first few years.

In laying out the fourth year work for Massachusetts schools the story of the first settlement of Plymouth and Boston would naturally come first, followed by other pioneer stories of New England, and the arrangement of the other stories of Hudson, etc., would be somewhat modified. In planning the course for Illinois schools, the stories of La Salle, Lincoln, and others of the Mississippi Valley, would occupy the first place, while the pioneer stories of more distant states would follow later.

Some schools may prefer to omit some of these stories or to substitute others in their place.

Raleigh: Early life. His attempts at founding colonies.

John Smith: Explorations. Experiences at Jamestown.

Boone: Life in Kentucky.

Washington: Early life.

Lincoln: Early life to the age of twenty.

The American Pioneer History Stories, in three volumes, contain most of the above stories and others for use in the fourth and fifth grades.

OTHER NATIONAL STORIES

Abraham: The chief scenes of his life.

Joseph: All the parts suitable for children.

David: His early life to the death of Saul.

These stories are well given in "Bible Stories in Scripture Language." Use the map freely. Consult chapter on List of Books.

Romulus: Founding of Rome.

Coriolanus: In the main according to Plutarch.

Cincinnatus: A short story.

The Roman stories are well given in several of the supplementary story-books named in the lists.

Julius Cæsar: Conquests in Gaul and England.

The Angles and Saxons: Their invasion of England.

King Alfred: His war with the Danes and later labors for his people.

All the above stories, both American and others, are designed for oral treatment.

The English stories are given in the "Story of the English," and in several other historical readers. It is better to give a few of these stories in full and interesting detail, with pictures, maps, and involving constructive efforts by the children, than to multiply short, scrappy stories.

LITERATURE AND READING OF FOURTH GRADE. THE FOLLOWING BOOKS ARE MUCH USED IN THE REGULAR READING LESSONS

Wonder Book and Tanglewood Tales (Hawthorne); Old Greek Folk Stories (Peabody); Greek Heroes (Kingsley). These books are excellent for regular school reading. Story of Ulysses and Tales of Troy, both prose and poetic translations and narrative stories. There are many renderings of the Greek myths and stories suited to school use. Book of Legends (Scudder).

Complete translations of the Iliad and Odyssey, by Bryant, Palmer, and others, are now available for teachers and pupils for school and home use.

Heroes of Asgard; Norse Stories (Mabie); Stories from the Old German (Pratt); Old Norse Stories (Bradish); Siegfried (Burt). These stories of Norse and German myths have been used for regular reading exercises, or they may serve as supplementary reading matter in school and home.

OTHER HISTORICAL AND LEGENDARY STORIES

Used in regular, supplementary, and home reading: Old Testament Stories in Scripture Language — the essential parts of the Bible stories for school use; Old Stories of the East (Baldwin) — a free rendering of the old Bible stories; Boy's King Arthur (Lanier); King Arthur and His Court (Frost); Stories of King

Arthur's Round Table Knights; Tales of Spenser stories of the Faerie Queene; Ballad Book. There are several good ballad books giving the old English, Scotch, and other European ballads. They are important products of the old folklore tradition and early history.

All the above stories and other books of similar character may be used partly for regular reading exercises, but especially for supplementary reading, for special occasions when the teacher reads to the whole school, and for home use at the fireside.

HISTORY. SUPPLEMENTARY READINGS

American Life and Adventure (Eggleston); Stories of Our Country (Johonnot). These books furnish simple narratives of interesting scenes of American life. Four Great Americans; Pioneers of the Revolution, stories of Boone, Robertson, and others; some of the American Pioneer History Stories. Most of these American History Stories are simple enough to be read by the children.

MISCELLANEOUS

Fifty Famous Stories Retold; Open Sesame, Vol. I and II — a collection of poems, ballads, etc.; The Arabian Nights — most famous of old stories; Stories of the Old World (Church); The Nürnburg Stove, and other stories; Child Life in Prose and Verse (Whittier).

It is well for the children in the fourth grade to begin to read for themselves the simpler stories of America, and also kindred stories of adventure and heroism from other countries, especially from European countries. The oral treatment of stories in this grade is the best possible introduction to the proper spirited appreciation of such narratives.

GEOGRAPHY

The geography of the fourth grade runs parallel with the history. The Pioneer History stories require a clear grasp of the natural or physical geography of North America and the power of interpreting maps.

The geography of this year should contain a good description of the interesting and striking physical features of North America, its chief mountains, forests, rivers, and zones of climate. Parallel with these geographical topics each pioneer story necessitates a special map to make clear the geographical conditions of the story.

Many of the topics of home geography treated in fourth grade trace out the origin of important products to various parts of North America and of the world, as tropical fruits, tea and coffee, cotton and silk goods, fine china and porcelain, etc.

The advantage of this close parallelism of history and geography is found in the very great interest which good stories lend to localities, and in the mutual help which these studies render to each

other in explaining and fixing better the facts of both geography and history. Each study reviews, reënforces, and intensifies the facts taught by the other. The value of each study in its relation to life is also better seen.

FIFTH GRADE

EUROPEAN EXPLORERS IN AMERICA

Columbus: His great purpose and its results.

The Cabots: A short story.

Magellan: First voyage around the world.

Cortés: The conquest of Mexico. Indians of Mexico.

De Soto: His wanderings in the Southern states.

Coronado: Explorations in the southwest.

Drake: His buccaneering voyage against the Spaniards.

Western Stories

George Rogers Clark.

Lewis and Clark: Journey up the Missouri.

Frémont: Two expeditions among the Rocky Mountains.

To California in 1849 to the gold regions.

Powell's descent of the Colorado.

These stories deal with two groups of the greatest explorers on sea and land. They were men of great energy, high purpose, and unyielding determination. Their deeds are not always praiseworthy,

but they are striking types of the men of their time, and in the main men of noble character.

HISTORY, EUROPEAN

Spanish and Portuguese Stories

Isabella of Spain.

Christians and Moors in Spain: Conquest of Granada. Irving's stories furnish some good material for the teacher.

Prince Henry and De Gama: Exploration of the coast of Africa. The efforts of the Portuguese to find an eastern route to India and the results should be compared with Columbus's and Spain's efforts toward the west.

English History

William the Conqueror: Conquest of England.

Richard I: His crusades. His knightly adventures.

John and the Great Charter.

Elizabeth: In connection with Raleigh and Drake. Story of the Armada.

There are several excellent books covering these topics, as The Story of the English, Child's History of England, etc.

Scotch History

William Wallace and Robert Bruce.

Tales of a Grandfather (Scott) and several other books give these famous stories in good form for schools, but somewhat difficult.

READING

Partly for regular school work and partly for home reading.

I. *American*

Hiawatha (Longfellow) — much used as a regular reader; American Explorers (Higginson) — much original material; Heroes of the Middle West (Catherwood); Discovery of the Old Northwest (Baldwin); Colonial Children (Hart) — source material; Source Book of American History (Hart) — excellent; American Historical Tales (Morris); Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln (Putnam). Children should be encouraged at school and home to read and enjoy this class of books.

II. *English and Scotch*

Tales of Chivalry (Rolfe); Tales from English History (Rolfe) — prose and verse. Heroic ballads, especially English and Scotch.

Robin Hood (Pyle) — first-class stories; Tales from Scottish History (Rolfe); Story of the English (Guerber) — earlier parts.

STORIES OF OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Reading and Literature

Lays of Ancient Rome (Macaulay); Jason's Quest (Lowell) — Story of the Golden Fleece; Ten Boys on the Road from Long Ago — partly English stories;

Stories from Herodotus — Crœsus, Cyrus, and others; Story of the Greeks (Guerber) — the earlier parts; Story of Roland (Baldwin) — age of Charlemagne; Ulysses among the Phæacians (Bryant) — simple poetic form; the Odyssey of Homer (Palmer) — poetic prose rendering; Book of Golden Deeds — many short stories.

Most of these are famous world-stories which are not only interesting to children, but of culture value as part of the race thought and experience. In the regular lessons in history and reading only a part of this historical and literary matter can be treated. But the leisure hours of children in school and at home cannot be better employed than in this reading, which expands the mind beyond the narrow range of school lessons. The geographical theatre of these stories should be clearly understood as a basis for clear knowledge.

Two years are thus given to the pioneer period of American history, dealing with the life, difficulties, and surroundings of the explorers and very earliest settlers. Chronology is of but little importance, although a few leading dates can be fixed. The great thing is to produce a strong impression by a complete, animated, and realistic protraiture of a leading character or events in which he figured. The pioneer period of American history lasted, however, from 1492 to 1850, or even later, and one of our historians has called attention to the fact that the most marked

and characteristic traits of American character have been found usually upon the frontier. As indicated in the course, parallel to these American stories runs a series of European history stories, somewhat similar in tone and general simplicity of life.

With these statements in mind, it will be possible to see the relation of this entire course of history study to the parallel course in geography.

The fourth, fifth, and sixth grade geography deals chiefly with the United States and North America, thus running parallel to much of the history of the same grades.

In the seventh grade the geography of Europe is mainly studied. It will be observed that the sixth-grade history has had much to do with Europe, both directly, as in the Persian and Punic wars, and indirectly in the relations of colonial settlement and development to European states, wars, etc. Besides this, the myths, history stories, and literature of European countries have been much used in the fourth and fifth grades, where the geographical locations of many of them have been fixed, as in the case of Ulysses in the Mediterranean, Siegfried on the Rhine, Horatius at Rome, Alfred in England, Isabella in Spain, and many others.

SIXTH GRADE

HISTORY

European History

The Persian wars: Contact of Persia with Greece. Darius and Xerxes: Marathon and Platæa.

The battle of Salamis: The leading characters also.

The Punic wars: Rome against Carthage. Hannibal and Fabius. Regulus.

The Scipios: The courage and perseverance of the Romans.

Colonial History of America

Virginia: James I, Bacon, Washington. Development of representative government. Royal governors. Emphasis upon the English side of the history. The picture of colonial life among the Virginia cavaliers should be clear.

New York: Peter Stuyvesant and the Dutch rule. History of the colony under royal governors. The relations with the Indians and other neighbors.

Pennsylvania: William Penn, Benjamin Franklin. The Quakers and Germans and Scotch-Irish. The people and the governors. Plans for the larger union of the colonies.

Massachusetts: Settlement of Plymouth and Boston. Winthrop. Growth of the representative system. The Indian wars. Royal governors, charters, and popular assemblies. The religious controversies and persecutions.

THE EUROPEAN WARS AS RELATED TO AMERICA

The last French and Indian War. Braddock's expedition. The last great struggle between the English and the French. Pitt in England. Montcalm and Wolfe. Pontiac's conspiracy. Condition of affairs at the close of the struggle. Character of French and English and their relations to the Indians.

RELATED READING AND LITERATURE (AMERICAN)

Miles Standish (Longfellow); Grandfather's Chair (Hawthorne); The Gentle Boy (Hawthorne); Giles Corey (Longfellow); Mabel Martin (Whittier); Snow-Bound, Among the Hills (Whittier); Tales of the White Hills (Hawthorne); The Sketch Book (Irving); Source Book of American History (Hart); Biographical Stories (Hawthorne); Our Country in Prose and Verse; Pilgrims and Puritans (Moore); Conquest of the Old Northwest (Baldwin); The Building of the Ship (Longfellow); Autobiography of Franklin; Seven American Classics; The Conquest of Mexico (Prescott); Children's Stories of American Literature (Wright).

READINGS FROM ENGLISH LITERATURE

The Coming of Arthur and the Passing of Arthur (Tennyson); Lay of the Last Minstrel (Scott); Choice English Lyrics; Child's History of England (Dickens); Tales from Shakespeare (Lamb); Stories

from Waverley (Scott); Stories from Old English Poetry (Richardson); Stories from English History (Church), 2 vols.; English Historical Tales (Morris); Source Book of English History (Kendall); History of England (Macaulay) — Introduction.

EUROPEAN READINGS

Ten Great Events — partly English; Froissart (Lanier's); William Tell (Schiller); Iliad (Bryant) — poetic translation; Don Quixote — a simple adaptation.

SEVENTH GRADE

THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY AND EUROPE

Leo X, Luther, Charles V, Henry VIII, Loyola, Gustavus Adolphus. Contest of Protestants and Catholics.

THE PURITAN REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND

Charles I and Parliament; Strafford. Hampden, Pym, Cromwell, Milton. William of Orange and the Protestant succession. Wesley and the Nonconformists.

LOUIS XIV AND THE FRENCH MONARCHY

French royalty and aristocracy. The tyranny of the upper classes over the poor. Lafayette, his early life and connection with America.

In the previous grades the character of the French has been studied in a much simpler form in Canada.

Their customs, religion, and warlike qualities were seen in La Salle, Frontenac, Champlain, Marquette, the Jesuits, and others. The stories of Champlain, La Salle, and the French wars have dealt also with the schemes of the French government and with the French monarchs and statesmen.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Causes of the Revolution. Trace back the causes in the history of the colonies and of England. The life of Samuel Adams as a Puritan leader. Opening events of the war about Boston. The capture of New York and the battles near New York. Washington's retreat through New Jersey. Burgoyne's invasion and its results. Valley Forge and the sufferings of the army. Sea-fights — Paul Jones and others. War in the South — Charleston, Savannah. Cornwallis's campaigns and surrender at Yorktown. Life of Washington, Franklin, Paul Jones, John Adams, Morris. The state of money matters at the close of the war. The growing hostility between the states. Congress and its power under the Articles of Confederation. The Philadelphia Convention: its struggles and leading men. The Constitution before the people; ratification. The life of James Madison in connection with the Constitution.

The great biographies should be very prominent, as Life of Washington (Scudder) and Samuel Adams (Hosmer).

RELATED READING AND LITERATURE

Evangeline (Longfellow) — French life and earlier history; Poems of Emerson ("Lexington," "Boston," and other poems); Webster's Bunker Hill, and Adams and Jefferson — strongly historical; Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill (Holmes); Camps and Firesides of the Revolution; Boys of '76 (Coffin) — good home reading, illustrated; American War Ballads and Lyrics — the earlier parts; Paul Revere's Ride (Longfellow); From Colony to Commonwealth (Moore); Life of Washington (Scudder) — the best for children; Source Book of American History (Hart) — Revolution and Confederation; Washington's Rules of Conduct, and other papers; Poor Richard's Almanac (Franklin); Speech on the Landing of the Pilgrims (Webster); Last of the Mohicans (Cooper); Stories of American Literature (Wright); biographies: Twelve Naval Captains (Sewell), first part; Washington and His Country (Fiske-Irving); Life of Samuel de Champlain (Sedgwick); Life of John Paul Jones (Hapgood); Life of Benjamin Franklin (Moore).

RELATED ENGLISH LITERATURE

Some of these books, like those in the previous list of American books, may be used in the regular reading work.

History of England (Macaulay) — the part on the Puritan revolution; Tom Brown's School Days

(Hughes)—English school life; Christmas Carol (Dickens); Tales of a Grandfather (Scott)—Wallace and Bruce; Shakespeare's Tragedies (Lamb)—Historical plays; Vicar of Wakefield (Goldsmith)—English life; Cotter's Saturday Night (Burns)—Scottish home life; Source Book of English History (Kendall); Story of the English (Guerber)—use the parts needed.

OTHER LITERATURE OF EUROPE

The Two Great Retreats (Grote)—retreat of the ten thousand; Merchant of Venice (Shakespeare)—Italy; Plutarch's Lives—Greek and Roman leaders; Life of Peter the Great (Motley)—interesting and clear; Natural History of Selbourne (White); Stories from the Classic Literature of Many Nations (Palmer); Stories of the Alhambra (Irving)—Spain and the Moors; The Letters of Chesterfield to his Son. William Tell.

EIGHTH GRADE

EUROPEAN HISTORY

Julius Cæsar and Augustus. The Roman Empire. The great period of Rome.

The French Revolution and Napoleon. Comparison with the American Revolution.

England's conquest of India. Clive and Hastings.

The English in Africa. Livingstone and Stanley. The struggle for Africa in recent years.

Revolt of the Spanish-American provinces.

The Greek war of independence. Turkey. Decay of Turkish power.

The union of the north German states. Bismarck and King William.

The union of Italian states. Cavour and Victor Emanuel.

Queen Victoria's reign. Bright, Gladstone. The English empire at present.

AMERICAN HISTORY UNDER THE CONSTITUTION

Hamilton and the finances; the banking system. Early division into parties; origin and growth of parties. Growth in territory, illustrated by simple maps. War of 1812; the right of impressment. Internal improvements; commercial routes westward. Immigration — its character and effects. Jackson and the spoils system. Inventions — their influence upon the progress of the country. Growth of slavery; the chief steps in its development. The Mexican War — its motives and results. Discovery of gold in California; continental railroads. The doctrine of state rights; southern leaders. Plan of the Civil War; a few chief campaigns. Our system of revenue; the national debt. The three departments of government; a system of checks. Civil-service reform; review of the spoils system.

Biographies: Hamilton, John Quincy Adams,

Daniel Webster, Lincoln, Horace Greeley, Whittier, Garrison, Whitney, Morse, Peter Cooper.

REGULAR READING LESSONS AND AMERICAN LITERATURE

Masterpieces of American Literature (Scudder); Nature Pictures by American Poets; Speech on Washington (Webster); Washington's Farewell Address; Tales of a Wayside Inn (Longfellow); Poems of American Patriotism; Hymns and Patriotic Songs; Fortune of the Republic and American Scholar (Emerson); Schurz's Abraham Lincoln and other selected pieces; Lincoln's Inaugurals, and other speeches. My Hunt after the Captain (Holmes); Biglow Papers — selections (Lowell); Uncle Tom's Cabin (Stowe); Speech in Reply to Hayne, or, The Great Debate (Webster); Burke on Conciliation with the American Colonies; Oregon Trail (Parkman) — pictures of western life; Source Book of American History (Hart) — latter part; The House of Seven Gables (Hawthorne); Story of the Great Republic (Guerber) — latter part; American Writers of To-day (Vedder); The Pilot (Cooper); Twelve Naval Captains (Sewell). Great Words of Great Americans.

READINGS FROM ENGLISH LITERATURE

Masterpieces of English Literature: Roger de Coverley (Addison) — English pictures; Lady of the Lake and Marmion (Scott); The Deserted Village

and Traveller (Goldsmith); Ivanhoe, The Abbot, and Rob Roy (Scott); Essay on Samuel Johnson (Macaulay); Source Book of English History (Kendall); Tale of Two Cities (Dickens). Seven British Classics.

OTHER EUROPEAN LITERATURE

Julius Cæsar (Shakespeare) — closely related to the history; Peasant and Prince (Martineau); The Judgment of Socrates (Plato); Story of the Romans (Guerber) — latter parts; The Boy's Browning — "Pied Piper" and other poems; Plutarch's Lives — historical biographies; Don Quixote (Cervantes); Two Great Retreats — retreat of Napoleon from Moscow; The Talisman and Quentin Durward (Scott); Jean Valjean; Motley's Peter the Great and The Siege of Leyden.

CHAPTER IX

LIST OF BOOKS

OUT of the great number of books on American and European history, it is needful that a careful selection be made of a few most suitable for use in the grades.

In pursuance of the plan and course of study laid out in the preceding chapters, a few select books have been chosen for each grade.

In each grade three groups of books are given.

1. Those books which may serve as a text-book basis for more careful study. In fourth and fifth grades the first list contains the stories to be treated orally by the teacher.

2. A list of supplementary reading and source material, biography and story, which children may be encouraged to use at school and home. This will open up the library to children, and teach them how to make use of books, sources, etc.

3. A list of a few important books for teachers, including some of the secondary histories, the stronger biographies and fuller source materials, doc-

uments, etc. Such a book as Channing and Hart's Guide to the Study of American History is of great value to teachers in directing their reading and study.

Several books of this character, with good, brief bibliographies, and a few books on the pedagogics of history are included.

The large, complete histories, such as Schouler's McMaster's, Bancroft's, and others, are named at the end of the list.

The entire list of books is designed to be definite for each grade, and to strike the middle line between too much and too little.

LIST OF BOOKS

FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADES

1. Books of American pioneer stories and a few European stories which furnish material suitable for oral treatment by the teacher. A few books of select poems and sources will also be of service to teachers.

Pioneers on Land and Sea. (McMurry.) The Macmillan Co.

This contains the stories of Hudson, Champlain, John Smith, Raleigh, early life of Washington, Columbus, Magellan, Cortés, and early New England.

Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley. (McMurry.) The Macmillan Co.

This has the stories of La Salle, Joliet and Marquette, Hennepin, Boone, Robertson, Sevier, George Rogers Clark, Lincoln, and De Soto.

Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West. (McMurry.) The Macmillan Co.

The stories of Lewis and Clark, Frémont's two expeditions, Parkman among the Indians, the Sioux massacre, the trip to California in '49, and Powell's descent of the Colorado.

The three books above named contain stories for use in both fourth and fifth grades. The order in which they are used depends upon the location of the home, in the East or West. It is recommended that the ocean pioneers, Columbus, Magellan, etc., be taken in the latter part of the fifth grade.

Pilgrims and Puritans. (Moore.) Ginn & Co.

The best account for our purpose of the early settlement of Plymouth and Boston. This reaches also into colonial history.

Heroes of the Middle West. (Catherwood.) Ginn & Co.
Excellent stories of the early French explorers along the Lakes and the Mississippi.

The Discovery of the Old Northwest. (Baldwin.) American Book Co.
Good stories of the French explorers.

The Conquest of the Old Northwest. (Baldwin.) American Book Co.
Stories of the contest for the Ohio Valley and the Northwest.

A Book of American Explorers. (Higginson.) Longmans, Green & Co.
These are instructive stories of the early explorers and settlers in America, containing much source material.

Our Country in Poem and Prose. (Persons.) American Book Co.
Excellent selections.

Samuel de Champlain. (Sedgwick.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
One hundred and twenty-six pages. A good, brief account of Champlain's life.

George Rogers Clark. (Turner.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
A lively narrative of Clark's exploits.

Lewis and Clark. (Lighton.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
The three above-mentioned books are good, brief biographies of value and interest to teachers as giving a fuller and more comprehensive treatment than the previous stories.

Source Book of American History. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.
The earlier parts on explorations and early settlement.

Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln. (Putnam.) A. C. McClurg & Co.

Stories from English History. (Church.) The Macmillan Co.
Earlier and later tales of England.

History of England. (Cooke.) D. Appleton & Co.

England's Story. (Tappan.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Instructive and well illustrated.

Four American Explorers. (Kingsley.) Werner School Book Co.

How our Grandfathers Lived. Source Reader. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.

Old South Leaflets. Sources. D. C. Heath & Co.

American History Leaflets. (Hart and Channing.) Lovell.

Stories from the Bible. (Church.) The Macmillan Co.
First Series. The early Bible stories in good form.

Source Book of English History. (Kendall.) The Macmillan Co.
A few selections from the first part.

2. Books of simple, historical narrative which may be read by children in the fourth or fifth grades.

Stories of American Life and Adventure. (Eggleston.) American Book Co.
Simple and interesting stories.

Stories of Colonial Children. (Pratt.) Educational Publishing Co.
Very simple stories of early Massachusetts.

Colonial Life in New Hampshire. (Fassett.) Ginn & Co.
An interesting description of early pioneer struggles.

Colonial Children. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.
Very simple source reader in early American history.

Pioneers of the Revolution. Public School Publishing Co.
Simple stories of Boone, and others.

Stories of the Badger State. (Thwaites.) American Book Co.

Stories of Maine. (Swett.) American Book Co.

A First Book in American History. (Eggleston.) American Book Co.

Wigwam Stories. (Judd.) Ginn & Co.
Primitive Indian legends and customs.

American Indians. (Starr.) D. C. Heath & Co.
One of the best books on Indian life.

Stories of our Country. (Johonnot.) American Book Co.

Children's Stories of American Progress. (Wright.) Scribner's.

Four Great Americans. (Baldwin.) Werner School Book Co.

Stories of Ohio. (Howells.) American Book Co.

Stories of Georgia. (Harris.) American Book Co.

American Leaders and Heroes. (Gordy.) Scribner's.
Instructive, entertaining, and well illustrated.

Explorers and Travelers. (Greely.) Scribner's.

The Young Puritans of Old Hadley. (Smith.) Roberts Bros.

Four True Stories of Life and Adventure. (Smith.) W. Beverly Harrison.

Hero Tales of American History. (Roosevelt and Lodge.) The Century Co.

A Primary History of the United States. (McMaster.) American Book Co. Illustrated.

Pacific History Stories. Tales of discovery of the Pacific slope. Ainsworth & Co.

First Steps in the History of Our Country. (Mowry.) Silver, Burdett & Co.

The Boys of Greenway Court. (Butterworth.) D. Appleton & Co.

Short Stories from English History. (Blaisdell.) Ginn & Co.
Easy narrative.

Stories of the Olden Time. (Johonnot.) American Book Co.
Myths, legends, and historical tales. Somewhat difficult.

Fifty Famous Stories Retold. (Baldwin.) American Book Co.

The City of the Seven Hills. (Harding.) Silver, Burdett & Co.

The Story of the Romans. (Guerber.) American Book Co.
Somewhat difficult in language.

Stories of Old France. (Pitman.) American Book Co.

Old Stories of the East. (Baldwin.) American Book Co.

Grandfather's Chair. (Hawthorne.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

3. Valuable references for teachers, including some of the abler and fuller historical works.

The Discovery of America. 2 Vols. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Beginnings of New England. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Old Virginia and her Neighbors. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Very interesting and instructive books for teachers.

Pioneers of France in the New World. (Parkman.)

La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West. (Parkman.)
These books, published by Little, Brown & Co., are the best teachers' books of early American history.

The California and Oregon Trail. (Parkman.) Little, Brown & Co.

American History told by Contemporaries. (Hart.) Vol. I. The Macmillan Co.
A very choice collection of source materials, well-arranged and easy of use.

Boys' Heroes. (Hale.) Lothrop.

Historical Tales, French. (Morris.) J. B. Lippincott.

The Winning of the West. (Roosevelt.) Putnam.
The best material for the early history of the Ohio Valley.

A Short History of the Mississippi Valley. (Hosmer.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Excellent, but somewhat brief.

Life of Christopher Columbus. (Lamartine.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Conquest of Mexico. (Prescott.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.
An abridgment.

The Making of New England. (Drake.) Scribner's.

The Making of the Ohio Valley States. (Drake.) Scribner's.

The Making of the Great West. (Drake.) Scribner's.

These books are excellent narratives of early conditions. Well illustrated.

Larger History. (Higginson.) Harper Brothers.

Sir Francis Drake. (Winsor.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Sir Walter Raleigh. (Edwards.)

Columbus. (Adams.) Dodd, Mead & Co.

An Historical Geography of the United States. (MacCoun.) Silver, Burdett & Co.
Simple maps with historical notes and explanations.

Westward Ho! (Kingsley.) The Macmillan Co.

History of England. (Buckley.) The Macmillan Co.

Alfred the Great. (Hughes.) The Macmillan Co.

The Story of the Christians and Moors of Spain. (Yonge.) The Macmillan Co.

Stories of Crœsus, Cyrus, and Babylon, from Herodotus. (Church.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.

Ten Boys on the Road from Long Ago. (Andrews.) Ginn & Co.

A Short History of Mediæval Europe. (Thatcher.) Scribner's.

The Story of Tonty. (Catherwood.) A. C. McClurg.

Alice of Old Vincennes. (Thompson.) The Bowen-Merrill Co.

Students' History of the United States. (Channing.) The Macmillan Co.

An excellent guide for teachers. Good reference lists.

Guide to the Study of American History. (Channing and Hart.) Ginn & Co.

A most complete and satisfactory book for teachers.

The Teaching of History and Civics. (Bourne.) Longmans, Green & Co.

A complete pedagogical treatise on history.

SIXTH GRADE

1. Text-books for children's use.

A special children's text-book on the colonial period has not been prepared, but a number of books deal somewhat fully with this period. A few of these are named, as follows: —

History of the United States. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

One hundred and eighty pages devoted to the period before the Revolution. The language may be somewhat difficult for children. This book may serve well as an outline, which can be filled in by teacher and children from other sources.

Several of the primary histories have simple, mostly biographical narratives of this early period, as a History of the United States (Gordy), Scribner's, the New Era History, published by Eaton & Co., Story of the Great Republic (Guerber), American Book Co., Our Country's Story (Tappan), Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and a Short History of the United States (Scudder), Sheldon & Co. They are usually well illustrated with maps and quaint pictures.

A good book for use in connection with one of the above, used as a text, is Higginson's A Larger History of the United States of America to the Close of Jackson's Administration, Chapters I to VIII. Well illustrated.

Colonial Children. (Hart.) Source Readers in American History, No. 1. The Macmillan Co.

Excellent. The very best select material for children.

The story of the Persian wars in Greece and of the Punic wars between Rome and Carthage are well told in a number of the histories for young people; for example: The Story of the Greeks (Guerber), and The Story of the Romans (Guerber), American Book Co.; The City of the Seven Hills (Harding), Scott, Foresman & Co.; History of Rome for Beginners (Shuckburgh), The Macmillan Co.; Greeks and Persians (Cox), Scribner's; Rome and Carthage (Smith), Scribner's.

2. Books of reference on colonial history for children.

Pilgrims and Puritans. (Moore.) Ginn & Co.

From Colony to Commonwealth. (Moore.) Ginn & Co.

Source Book of American History. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.

Chapters I to VIII. Well adapted for the use of children.

The Making of New England. (Drake.) Scribner's.

The Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies. (Drake.) Scribner's.

The Making of the Great West. (Drake.) Scribner's.

These three volumes supply good supplementary reading.

The Border Wars of New England. (Drake.) Scribner's.

Life of George Washington. (Scudder.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Chapters I to XII give the best account for children of Washington's life up to the Revolution.

Grandfather's Chair. (Hawthorne.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The best stories of colonial life in Hawthorne's interesting style.

Colonial Days in Old New York. (Earle.) Scribner's.
Fine description of Dutch life and customs.

Colonial Days and Ways. (H. E. Smith.) The Century Co.

The Gentle Boy and Other Tales. (Hawthorne.) Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Colonial Pioneers. (Parton.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.

History of Plymouth Plantation. (Bradford.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.

Colonial Massachusetts. (Dawes.) Silver, Burdett & Co.
Good stories. Well illustrated.

Roger Williams. (Straus.) The Century Co.

Child Life in Colonial Days. (Earle.) Illustrated. The Macmillan Co.

Stories of the Old Bay State. (Brooks.) American Book Co.

American History Stories. (Dodge.) Lee & Shepard.

Historic Boston. (Hale.) D. Appleton & Co.

The Autobiography of Franklin. The Macmillan Co., American Book Co., Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Ginn & Co.
Parts of this interesting narrative of colonial life can be selected by the teacher for reference reading, or class use.

Benjamin Franklin. (More.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
A short, interesting biography of Franklin.

William Penn. (Hodges.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
This supplies some excellent descriptions of Penn's work.

Colonial Life in New Hampshire. (Fassett.) Ginn & Co.

American Indians. (Starr.) D. C. Heath & Co.

The Conquest of the Northwest. (Baldwin.) American Book Co.
Clear and well narrated.

Historical Geography of the United States. (MacCoun.)
A small book with good series of historical maps, notes, etc.

Biographical Stories. (Hawthorne.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co

The Courtship of Miles Standish. (Longfellow.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Westward Ho ! (Kingsley.) The Macmillan Co.

The Conquest of Mexico. (Prescott.) Maynard, Merrill & Co. Abridged.

Ten Great Events in History. (Johonnot.) American Book Co.

Tales from Scottish History. (Rolfe.) American Book Co.

Tales from English History. (Rolfe.) American Book Co.

Ten Boys on the Road from Long Ago. (Andrews.) Ginn & Co.

3. Important reference books for teachers.

The Colonies. 1492–1750. (Thwaites.) Longmans, Green & Co.

Home Life in Colonial Days. (Earle.) Illustrated. The Macmillan Co.

An excellent treatment of this period with descriptive list of best books for the teacher's use.

Customs and Fashions of Old New England. (Earle.) Scribner's.

Half Hours with American History. Vol. I. J. B. Lippincott.

Colonial America. J. B. Lippincott.

Excellent material on special topics.

A Student's History of the United States. (Channing.) The Macmillan Co.

A book designed for high schools, but of the greatest value to teachers. A somewhat full treatment of the colonial period, pp. 1–150. Excellent maps and book references.

Guide to the Study of American History. (Channing and Hart.) Ginn & Co.

American History told by Contemporaries. Vols. I and II.
Full and well-selected source material for the colonial period. Excellent books for the school library.

The Beginnings of New England. (Fiske.)

Old Virginia and her Neighbors. (Fiske.) 2 Vols.

The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America. (Fiske.) 2 Vols.
All published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. These five volumes have great interest and value.

The Making of New England. (Drake.) Scribner's.
Very instructive on colonial life.

Virginia and the Middle Colonies. (Drake.) Scribner's.
Excellent detail.

Pioneers of New France. (Parkman.)

Montcalm and Wolfe. (Parkman.)

Conspiracy of Pontiac. (Parkman.)
All published by Little, Brown & Co.

Costumes of Colonial Times. (Earle.) Scribner's.

Miles Standish. (Abbott.) Dodd, Mead & Co.

Colonial Era. (Fisher.) Scribner's.
This is the most complete treatment of the colonial period in a single volume.

English Colonies. (Lodge.) Harper Brothers.

American History Leaflets. (Hart and Channing.) Lovell & Co.

Old South Leaflets. D. C. Heath & Co.

European Colonies. (Payne.) The Macmillan Co.

The Seats of the Mighty. (Parker.) D. Appleton & Co.
An historical novel. Story of Quebec.

Side Glimpses from the Colonial Meeting-house. (Bliss.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Short History of the Mississippi Valley. (Hosmer.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Short History of the English People. (Green.) The Macmillan Co.

Life of Hannibal. (Arnold.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Stories from English History. (Church.) The Macmillan Co.

Method in History. (Mace.) Ginn & Co.

How to study and teach History. (Hinsdale.) D. Appleton & Co.

SEVENTH GRADE

1. Books for careful reading and study by the children.

History of the United States. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This furnishes merely a good outline to be filled in from fuller sources. Condensed and somewhat difficult. Any one of several other text-books will serve as well as Fiske's.

The War of Independence. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A full and interesting account of the causes leading up to the war, and of the chief campaigns. This book can receive a careful study.

Washington and his Country. (Fiske-Irving.) Ginn & Co.

This book furnishes excellent collateral reading and study of special topics. It is largely biographical and interesting.

Benjamin Franklin. (More.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Chapters V and VI. A brief account of Franklin in France.

Source Book of American History. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.

Chapters IX and X.

Paul Jones. (Hapgood.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A biography of the chief naval hero of the Revolution.

Camps and Firesides of the Revolution. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.

An excellent source reader. Simple.

American History told by Contemporaries. (Hart.) Vol. II.
The best and simplest source material. This book should be in the school library for constant reference. Part also of Vol. III.

England's Story. (Tappan.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
This contains, for reference, a good, brief account of the English Puritan revolution, as well as an outline history of England.

History of England. (Macaulay.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Chapter I. The part on the Puritan revolution.

2. Further books of reference and supplementary reading for children.

The Men who made the Nation. (Sparks.) The Macmillan Co.
First half of the book. Somewhat difficult in language.

Life of Washington. (Scudder.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
An excellent biography for children.

Burgoyne's Invasion. (Drake.) Lee & Shepard.
An interesting monograph on this expedition.

Stories of Georgia. (Harris.) American Book Co.

Grandfather's Chair. (Hawthorne.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Part III. Good stories in Hawthorne's fine style.

Poems of American Patriotism. Scribner's.
The earlier selections in the book.

Boys of '76. (Coffin.) Harper Brothers. Illustrated.

Heroes of the Revolution. (Parton.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.
An interesting pamphlet.

Side Lights on American History. (Elson.) The Macmillan Co.
Vol. I. An excellent treatment of special topics.

Our Country in Poem and Prose. (Persons.) American Book Co.
Patriotic and choice selections.

The Young American. (Judson.) Maynard, Merrill & Co.

The Century Book of the American Revolution. (Brooks.) The Century Co.

Stories of Old France. (Pitman.) American Book Co.
An introduction to French history.

Larger History. (Higginson.) Harper Brothers.
A complete and interesting history of the United States to 1837.

Alexander Hamilton. (Conant.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
A brief biography, simple and instructive.

Stories from English History. (Church.) The Macmillan Co.
A standard book of children's history stories.

The Story of the English. (Guerber.) American Book Co.

Tales of a Grandfather. (Scott.) Ginn & Co.
Stories of Wallace, Bruce, Douglas, etc.

Bunker Hill, Adams, and Jefferson. (Webster.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Somewhat difficult, but worth the effort of serious study.

Source Book of English History. (Kendall.) The Macmillan Co.
Excellent material.

An Historical Geography. (MacCoun.) Silver, Burdett & Co.

3. Choice books for teachers' use.

Formation of the Union. (Hart.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Excellent, with choice references.

A Student's History of the United States. (Channing.) The Macmillan Co.

Guide to the Study of American History. (Channing and Hart.) Ginn & Co.
The best guide for teachers.

The French War and the Revolution. (Sloane.) Scribner's.
A full treatment of this period in one volume.

The Growth of the American Nation. (Judson.) The Macmillan Co.

An excellent survey of American history for teachers. Interesting.

The United States of America. (Channing.) 1765–1865. The Macmillan Co.
A somewhat complete historical survey of this period.

The Story of the Revolution. (Lodge.) Scribner's.
Two large volumes. Finely illustrated.

Half Hours with American History. Vol. II. J. B. Lippincott.

The Life of Samuel Adams. (Hosmer.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Most excellent as introductory to the Revolution.

The American Revolution. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 Vols.
Complete and valuable.

The Critical Period of American History. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Of great value, and remarkably interesting.

Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America. The Macmillan Co., Ginn & Co., Silver, Burdett & Co., Houghton, Mifflin & Co., American Book Co.
A great piece of literature, and very instructive.

George Washington. (Lodge.) 2 Vols. Statesmen Series. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
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American History Leaflets. (Hart and Channing.) Lovell & Co.
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Life of Martin Luther. (Bunsen.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. A short biography.

The Era of Protestant Revolution. (Seebohm.) Scribner's.

Europe in the Sixteenth Century. (Johnson.) Rivington. The period of the Reformation.

Brave Little Holland. (Griffis.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A General History of Europe. (Thatcher and Schwill.) Scribner's.

The Puritan Revolution. (Gardner.) Longmans, Green & Co.

Student's History of England. (Gardner.) Longmans, Green & Co.

Short History of the English People. (Green.) The Macmillan Co.

The Teaching of History and Civics. (Bourne.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Valuable for teachers.

EIGHTH GRADE

1. Books for children's study.

One good text-book of American history, such as History of the United States. (Fiske.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. This book is somewhat difficult in parts, and needs to be illustrated and enlarged from source material, history readers, biographies, and larger histories as follows: —

Formation of the Union. (Hart.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Chapters VII to XII. A clear treatment of topics up to 1829. This book is designed for older students, but in connection with other fuller materials may serve also for eighth-grade pupils.

Side Lights on American History. (Elson.) 2 Vols. The Macmillan Co.
These two volumes furnish an excellent supplement to the text-

book. A few important topics are handled with descriptive fulness, so as to furnish clear and interesting pictures. The second volume deals with the period of the Civil War and the later history.

Alexander Hamilton. (Conant.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
A good, brief account of Hamilton's part in making and launching the government.

Abraham Lincoln. (Schurz.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
A brief, masterly essay on Lincoln's life and character.

Source Book of American History. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.

Historical Geography of the United States. (MacCoun.) Silver, Burdett & Co.

History of England for Beginners. (Buckley.) The Macmillan Co.
The latter part.

The History of Colonization. (Morris.) 2 Vols. The Macmillan Co.

England's Story. (Tappan.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
The latter part of the book is a good, brief statement of English and European history in the last hundred years.

The Story of Cæsar. (Clarke.) American Book Co.

Stories from English History. (Church.) The Macmillan Co.

2. Children's supplementary books for reading and reference.

The Growth of the American Nation. (Judson.) The Macmillan Co.
An interesting and vigorous treatment of leading topics.

American History told by Contemporaries. (Hart.) The Macmillan Co.
Vols. III and IV. An excellent collection of source materials, well arranged for easy reference. Very valuable for school library.

Children's Stories of American Progress. (Wright.) Scribner's.
Very simple narratives on special topics.

Children's Life of Lincoln. (Putnam.) A. C. McClurg.
A simple story of Lincoln's life.

The Making of the Ohio Valley States. (Drake.) Scribner's.

The Men who made the Nation. (Sparks.) The Macmillan Co.
The second half of the book. It is chiefly biographical.

Old South Leaflets. D. C. Heath & Co.
Several of these important papers belong to this period.

A Larger History of the United States of America to the close of Jackson's Administration. (Higginson.) Harper Brothers.

Peter Cooper. (Raymond.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Poems of American Patriotism. (Matthews.) Scribner's.

Words of Lincoln. Maynard, Merrill & Co.

Twelve Naval Captains. (Sewall.) Scribner's.

Yankee Ships and Yankee Sailors. (Barnes.) The Macmillan Co.

American History Studies. (Caldwell.) Ainsworth & Co.

Girls Who Became Famous. (Bolton.) T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Four American Inventors. (Perry.) Werner School Book Co.

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Julius Cæsar. (Liddell.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Life of Nelson. (Southey.) Ginn & Co., American Book Co., The Macmillan Co.

The Great Debate. (Hayne-Webster.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Somewhat difficult, but of great value.

The Two Great Retreats. (Grote-Segur.) Ginn & Co.
Napoleon's retreat from Moscow.

History of Rome for Beginners. (Shuckburgh.) The Macmillan Co.

Explorers and Travelers. (Greely.) Scribner's.

3. Books for teachers.

Student's History of the United States. (Channing.) The Macmillan Co.
Excellent.

Guide to the Study of American History. (Channing and Hart.) Ginn & Co.

Nature and Man in America. (Shaler.) Scribner's.

The Making of the Nation. (Walker.) Scribner's.

Thomas Jefferson. (Morse.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

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Daniel Webster. (Lodge.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
These four biographies belong to the American Statesmen Series.

Civil Government. (Macy.) Ginn & Co.

The Last Quarter Century in the United States. (Andrews.) 2 Vols. Scribner's.

American Territorial Development. (Caldwell.) Ainsworth & Co.

Half Hours with American History. Vol. II. J. B. Lippincott.

The United States of America. (Channing.) 1765–1865. The Macmillan Co.
An excellent survey.

The Middle Period. (Burgess.) Scribner's.

Division and Reunion. (Wilson.) 1829–1889. Longmans, Green & Co.

American History Leaflets. 30 numbers. (Hart and Channing.) Lovell & Co.

Bird's-eye View of our Civil War. (Dodge.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Civil War and the Constitution. (Burgess.) 2 Vols. Scribner's.

The Fortune of the Republic. (Emerson.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

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Europe in the Nineteenth Century. (Judson.) Scribner's.
A good survey of important later events in Europe.

History of Modern Europe. (Schwill.) Scribner's.
Excellent for the teacher's use.

Shorter History of England. (Green.) The Macmillan Co.

Source Book of English History. (Kendall.) The Macmillan Co.

General History of Europe. (Thatcher and Schwill.) Scribner's.

European Colonies. (Payne.) The Macmillan Co.

History of the Colonization of Africa. (Johnston.) University Press.

Essay on Lord Clive. (Macaulay.) The Macmillan Co.

Essay on Warren Hastings. (Macaulay.) The Macmillan Co.

Report of the Committee of Seven. The Macmillan Co.
An excellent discussion of the history problem.

Methods of teaching and studying History. (Edited by Hall.) D. C. Heath & Co.

Counsel on the Reading of Books. (Introduction by Van Dyke.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The teaching of History and Civics. (Bourne.) Longmans, Green & Co.

How to study and teach History. (Hinsdale.) D. Appleton & Co.

Method in History. (Mace.) Ginn & Co.

McMaster's History of the People of the United States. 5 Vols. D. Appleton & Co.

History of the United States. 6 Vols. Schouler.

Narrative and Critical History of America. 8 Vols. (Justin Winsor.) Illustrated. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

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